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WAR RELIEF WORK

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FOREWORD

The title of this volume is descriptive of its contents to the extent to which the word "relief" receives the larger connotation demanded by the exigencies of the war. For decades social scientists have sought to emphasize the fact that a program of constructive relief is essential to national efficiency. The essence of real democracy is not in competition and individual struggle, but in coöperation and collective struggle.

One of the greatest contributions of the war to our social thinking is the realization, forced upon us by the severity of the struggle, that not merely armies and navies are involved, but that the whole nation is at war. This concept is phrased in "the mobilization of national resources" and includes man and woman power, material wealth, industry and the social mind. It follows as a natural consequence that public health, baby saving, child welfare, social hygiene, wholesome recreation and protection of workers are as essential to national vitality and strength as a capable army and navy, quick and liberal response to liberty loans, efficient industrial organization, or sound patriotism.

The feverish development of modern industrialism precluded any quick and clear perception of the need for conserving either the material or the vital resources of nations. *Laissez faire* philosophy was too deeply entrenched in the popular mind. Social programs were being developed, however, to meet specific needs and the public consciousness was slowly being awakened. Far-sighted statesmen were becoming active in the advocacy of social readjustment for the effective accomplishment of the pursuits of peaceful civilization.

Then came the war. In the fierceness of the early days of the conflict, when it seemed that the struggle would be short and decisive, it was to be expected that every energy should be utilized; that future needs should be sacrificed to present necessities. With the prolongation of the war, however, it began to be apparent that the problem was one of national endurance. This meant not only the organization, equipment and maintenance of vast military

forces, but the unification of the nation and the development of a public morale that could withstand the strain of war for an indefinite period. Increase of poverty, social unrest, increasing mortality, low birth rates, social disorganization, could now be seen to be as dangerous as army mutiny.

Those with clearer visions have perceived that the supreme national test will come in the reconstruction period after the war is over. Though victorious at arms, a nation may suffer such a loss of national vitality as to menace its future. It is even possible to lose the democratic spirit at home while fighting for democracy abroad.

In order to mobilize the entire nation, to unify its activities, to conserve its resources and to guarantee its success during the war and its prosperity after the war, it became necessary, not only to organize its military machinery on a gigantic scale, but to develop as well certain constructive programs, which for want of an adequate term, yet to be coined, to describe this enormous group of social activities we call "war relief work."

First of all this work involves the enlargement and intensification of the activities of all existing social agencies. The nation can ill afford to neglect its present wards or to allow their burden to increase for lack of care. Then new agencies must be created to meet specific or emergency needs incident to the war. The dependents of soldiers must be provided for on a scale never before contemplated or undertaken. The modern public conscience demands that this shall not merely be provided but that it shall be provided adequately.

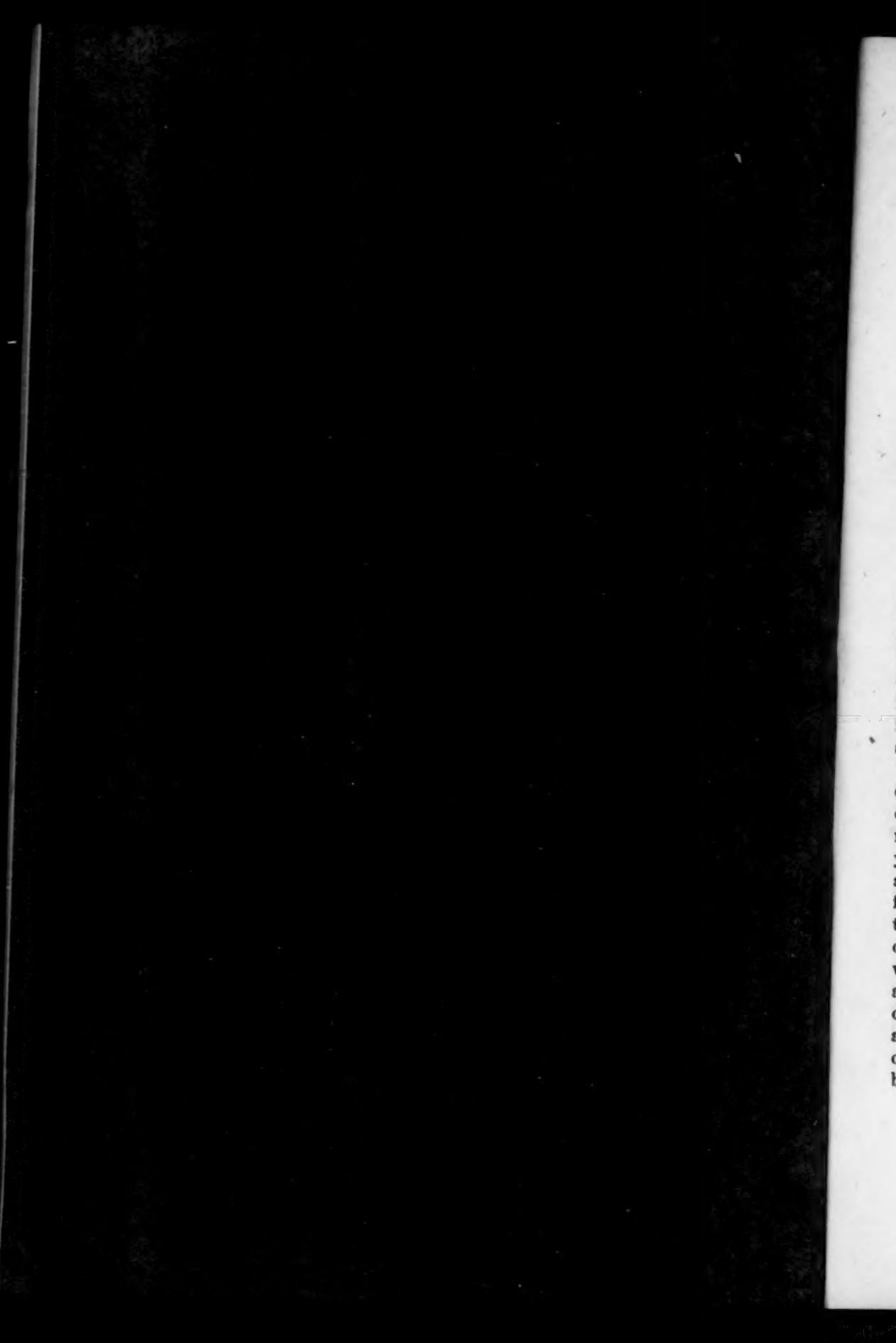
The principle of accident insurance, now so thoroughly established in the field of industry, has been extended to cover war risks as an improvement upon previous pension systems. To the emergency work of the Red Cross now so tremendously enlarged has been added that immense field of activities known as civilian relief work. All the allied nations have realized as never before the necessity of placing fit armies in the field and to this end have organized on a magnificent scale departments of training camp activities. The service this branch of "relief" renders, especially in the United States, is incalculable. Religious activities have been increased mainly through the work of the nonsectarian organization of the Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A., but aided by the Catholic and Jewish organizations. A whole volume might be devoted to the

work of the Council of National Defense in the United States. Other social welfare organizations interested in child welfare, vocational education, housing of industrial workers, etc., have enlarged the scope of their activities. Methods of financing war relief work of such huge proportions had to be created.

The Academy has had in mind two principal objects in presenting this volume to its readers. First, to provide up-to-the-minute and accurate information in regard to the whole subject of war relief work at home and abroad. This has been done as thoroughly as the facilities of the Academy would permit. Second, to contribute to the development of that large and wholesome public social consciousness without which it would be difficult if not impossible to win the war and without which the benefits of democratic civilization could not be conserved to the future of mankind.

J. P. LICHTENBERGER.





WAR RELIEF WORK IN EUROPE

BY EDWARD T. DEVINE,
American Red Cross, Paris.

The time has not yet come, probably it never will come, for any attempt at a comprehensive account of the official and voluntary relief activities of the war. They have been on such a vast scale, and have been undertaken from such various motives—humanitarian, political and military—that it would be a stupendous task to assemble and analyze the financial, statistical and descriptive data which could make any general survey possible.

The war has its spiritual blessings. We must by all means make the most of them. America, especially, latest of the great nations to enter the war, had no alternative, if she were to save her soul alive; and right gloriously she has—even as I write—brought her sacrifice to the altar. Clear thinking and clear seeing as to the cost of the war in terms of human life and physical well-being, will not diminish but increase our appreciation of its regenerating influence on national character and its revolutionary effect on spiritual values.

The broad fact, is that wealth is daily destroyed—deliberately on our part—that civilization may live. The broad fact, is that daily young men and men in middle life, vigorous, normal, sound in mind and body, are crippled for life or disabled for weeks, months, or years, and so made into dependent hospital patients; and that others are killed outright. The broad fact, is that families are dependent for their daily bread on the state or on voluntary charity because their natural breadwinners are at the war, or have been killed or disabled. The broad fact, is that whole communities, populations which must be counted now by the millions, are dislocated, driven away from their homes to live—often unwelcome—among strangers: doubly dependent because their sons and fathers are fighting and their women and old men and their children are civil prisoners or refugees. The broad fact, is that the war has suddenly blocked or diverted into other channels a great volume of good will,

experience and trained service which in every country had begun to show concrete results from organized social efforts, to reduce human misery and promote social welfare. These five, broad, incontrovertible facts—(1) diminished social income, (2) disabled soldiers, (3) dependent soldiers' families, (4) dislocated populations, and (5) crippled social movements—especially those which are educational or preventive in character—indicate the general lines of appropriate, inevitable war relief activities. We may consider them in order.

DIMINISHED SOCIAL INCOME

Relief activities cannot, of course, from the social point of view affect the actual loss of wealth and of income caused by the destruction of war. Houses, farms, animals, corps, railway rolling stock, ships and cargoes destroyed by shells or submarines, and ammunition used to destroy life and property, are simply gone. The effort put into their production is lost; no humanitarian effort can change the profit and loss account. But relief measures can and do, by a sort of rough insurance indemnity, change the distribution, the incidence of the burden. Indemnity for war losses has already been the subject of extensive European legislature, and courts and commissions have already begun to adjust claims created by old or new laws on the subject. Relief funds have been raised from private sources, and public appropriations have been made for emergency relief of those who have suffered by the destruction of their houses or their means of livelihood. Such individual losses swell the claim of reparation and compensation which the victorious nations may expect to collect at the end of the war, even though they accept the principle of no punitive indemnities. The fact, however, that the war, whatever its origin, has become a world disaster, from which the whole world will suffer economically for a long time, may as well be recognized sooner as later; and this implies that its ravages wherever they are—in Russia, Armenia, Belgium, or Serbia—must be met as far as possible from the surplus wealth wherever it is—in Germany or England, in North America or South America—in victorious or conquered, belligerent or neutral nations. This will be done in part by the terms of peace; but in large part it will have to be done by relief measures voluntary adopted: relief appropriations of governments, generous gifts of foundations, splendid

and heroic gifts of large and small contributions through the Red Cross and through all sorts of voluntary agencies.

These activities are now in progress all over the world, helping to redistribute the available resources in accordance with human needs. They are practical socialism if one likes to call them so, or applied religion, or old fashioned charity, or democratic recognition of a public obligation. It does not matter what it is called. The world is poorer than it was five years ago. There is not as much to eat, to wear, to enjoy or to waste. Official and voluntary measures of control and relief are contributing to insure the use of what there is, in such a way, as to prevent as many as possible from having too little to eat, and others from wasting, notwithstanding the shortage. That is the first and greatest, although somewhat vague, function of war relief as it is of social control in general.

DISABLED SOLDIERS AND SAILORS

In spite of official commissions, elaborate legislation, systematic educational propaganda, inter-allied conferences and brave promises, the age-old problem of dependent ex-soldiers crippled by the loss of limbs, of eyesight, of nervous stability, of the capacity of self support looms large on every national horizon. Economic independence, through vocational re-education when necessary, through help in readjustment in an old occupation when that is possible, through stimulating confidence on the part of everybody that is possible oftener than not, is to be cherished as an ideal for the individual who has lost an eye, a hand, or a lung. We are not to be sentimental over these discharged soldiers or indifferent to their lot. We are not to allow them to be exploited nor are we to allow them to depress the standards of wages for their fellow workmen. We are neither to make heroes of a day nor wrecks of a lifetime out of their deeds and their bad luck. I have seen them already in their American uniforms going cheerfully home, having done their part, unconquered in spirit and rejoicing at having had their good chance.

Schools and scholarships; special employment agencies and workshops; definite liberal pensions not so extravagant as to discourage efforts at self-support and not to be reduced because of exceptional individual success in self-supporting effort; coöperation with trade unions and with employing industries; continuing interest on the part of some carefully constituted local committee

in solving the hard cases; official protection against neglect and assurance of attention to medical and surgical needs—are the outstanding features of an adequate provision for disabled soldiers and sailors. Any national policy which is based upon the theory that insurance, re-education, orthopaedic care and employment exchange will insure the complete absorption of our war cripples into the economic life of the nation, so as to eliminate the necessity for public and voluntary supplement to their earnings, certainly awaits early disillusionment.

The lesson of European relief for war cripples, is that education and economic adjustment are the very best means for those who can take advantage of them; but that large financial resources and infinite patience and persistence are necessary to insure even a minority of the war victims getting the advantage of them; and that the state, the local municipality, the Red Cross, and all the well disposed private individuals who can be brought to take any permanent and effective interest in the individual cripples will have their hands full. Organized national provision for education—trade, technical and professional—and for placement is a sort of solid foundation on which to build; but what needs to be built on this foundation is a retail personal interest in the individual, first of all on his own part, and then on the part of his relatives, former employers, fellow craftsmen or neighbors, and a kindly, unsentimental helping hand from an understanding friend at the right moment.

THE FAMILIES OF THE KILLED AND DISABLED ACTIVE SOLDIERS

This war differs from all the wars that precede it in the vast number of producers withdrawn at one time from ordinary industrial pursuits. It differs also in the extent to which the state has assumed the financial burden of the resulting loss to the families affected. For the first time there has been all but universal recognition of this obligation. In France the soldiers' pay is only a nominal token, but his family allowance is liberal. It includes not only a daily payment sufficient for food, but the free occupancy of whatever home the soldier had at the time of his enlistment, and numerous allowances for fuel, for sickness, for large family, for invalidity, etc., some of which are merely the common provision of the community for such contingencies, but interpreted with special liberality in the case of soldiers' families.

It is hardly too much to say, that in Russia, before the revolution, the great body of the agricultural peasantry had actually an appearance of prosperity because of the official provision for the families of soldiers. War prices for food, the suppression of vodka and other influences no doubt contributed to this appearance, and the appearance was no doubt deceptive as the destruction of capital and the diminution of production were undermining the national economic life there as elsewhere. The fact remains that those village families in which perhaps the father and one or more sons were in the army, and which by the labor of women continued to raise and market the usual crops and lived meantime under a régime of enforced temperance, found the state allowance so generous that they had no cause for complaint as to their standard of living. England and the colonies have not been less vigilant than their Allies in looking after the families of soldiers and sailors, and they have made rather more use of voluntary local service in carrying out the system of national care.

THE DISLOCATED PEOPLES

The mobilized armies unfortunately do not represent the whole of the abnormal displacement of populations caused by the war. The invasion of East Prussia and Galicia by the Russians, the invasion of Russian Poland by the Germans, the overrunning of Belgium and of the Balkans by the central powers, the descent into Triuli of the Austrians, the ebb and flow of the warfare in Asiatic Turkey, and above all the occupation of the flourishing departments of northeastern France, have resulted in refugee problems, unique in history, appalling in character, overwhelming in magnitude.

In Russia and in France, a state allowance for refugees early became as clear a necessity as the allowance for soldier's families. The Russian Government established four central commissions on national lines, one for the general Slav population and one each for Poles, Jews and Lithuanians, through which state applications were distributed to refugees. France has its allowance of a franc and a half a day for adults, and a franc for children besides free rent and relief in kind, according to local resources and needs. Obviously, however, such public provisions are only the beginning of refugee relief—a necessary but wholly inadequate measure, giving a sort

of substantial material basis for voluntary and official measures of a far-reaching kind—all of which together mitigate only in the slightest degree, the immeasurable misery of the displacement of civil populations by modern invading armies. To stay behind as civil prisoners or hostages—to go instantly by military order under a forced evacuation—to wait until the last moment and then flee as voluntary refugees dependent on the hard chances of the roadway and, at the railway station, on the possibility of a canteen,—to look some days or weeks ahead and leave while trains are running or country roads are not yet crowded, with the possibility that after all the tide may turn and the refugee find himself in the uncomfortable position of one who has been too easily frightened—such are alternatives which some millions of human beings have had to face in the past four years. Some have gone because they were afraid to stay, some because their homes have been destroyed by bombs or shells, some because they were in the way of the armies, some because it was time to go and their neighbors were going. Refugees doubled the population of Moscow, they have doubled and trebled the population of towns and villages in southern France.

THE WAR AND EXISTING CHARITABLE AND SOCIAL ACTIVITIES

It must, of course, be borne in mind, that during the war most of the ordinary relief tasks of peace times remain, some of them made enormously heavier by the war—both because there is more to be done and because financial and personal resources are to some extent diverted to war activities. Hospitals of civilians; orphanages; reformatories; asylums for the aged, insane, feeble-minded, epileptic; child caring agencies; general relief societies; the whole vast net work of organized philanthropy, whether official, semi-official or voluntary, is profoundly affected by the war, in some ways no doubt for the better but certainly on the side of income more often for the worse.

Where such established relief agencies are conducted by the state, or where, as in France, if not public, they have accumulated through bequest or otherwise substantial endowments which are carefully protected by law and by custom, the effect of the war on their means of support may not be fatal. The larger established activities may thus go on, reducing the number of their beneficiaries, transferring some responsibilities to the special war relief

agencies, accepting on their own account some war victims and making this the basis for sharing in the special "war benefit," or borrowing is necessary to tide over the emergency. They do not often close their doors solely for financial reasons, although sometimes these have a certain influence in connection with other causes for changing the character of the work or for moving from one place to another. They are often overcrowded, and very often wholly unable to receive as many as apply to them. Sheer neglect of those who actually need shelter, nourishment, a doctor's care, an asylum in old age or mental incapacity is a familiar sight in every European country affected by the war.

It is not, however, the orphanages, hospitals and general relief societies that have been most seriously affected, but rather those activities which we in America are accustomed to group together under some such phrase as preventive or constructive social measures, as for example improved housing, educational work for the control of infection and the elimination of insanitary conditions, the care and instruction of mothers in the conservation of prenatal and infant life, the development of playgrounds and athletics and of special children's courts, the probation and parole system of preventing young offenders from becoming criminals, the coördination of philanthropic and civic activities through social service exchanges.

It is in the dynamics of the social organization, rather than in its statics, that we must look for the effects of the war. We shall find those effects complex of course. There is, I believe, a current impression that they have been on the whole favorable; that because the world has had to fix its common mind on human suffering and abnormal conditions, we are getting on faster in dealing with them. There is some justification for this impression in certain limited fields, as for example in welfare work in munition factories and in the conservation of food. There has been more intense study of certain problems arising from the war, and new knowledge so gained has been applied in other fields. Heroic efforts are in progress to do something about the prevention of tuberculosis and to lessen the waste of infant life.

Generally speaking, however, the war has certainly obstructed the social movement rather than aided it. Organized and related efforts to promote the common welfare and to eliminate the recognized and preventable causes of human misery had begun in Europe,

as in America, to show concrete results in a diminished death rate, better physique, cleaner homes, better ordered communities, higher standards of living. Perhaps there are those who would deny that such social progress was taking place, who would still, if they could be taken back to the Europe of five years ago, see only increasing poverty in the midst of progress, signs of a cataclysm sure to result from the final separation of society into two opposing classes of exploiters and proletariates. The hardships of those times appear, generally speaking, in a different perspective to those who in the last four years have been the constant companions of the families that mourn, of the families who have literally lost their homes, who may be strangers in their own country or prisoners in that of the enemy, of the broken families and mutilated human beings, as the French, after all not so inappropriately, call those who even in their country's service have lost a leg or both legs, an arm or both arms or a part of the face.

The war means not only diminished wealth, lower standards of living, less food, lowered physique, poorer homes more overcrowding, neglected children, harder, more grinding and more exhausting work, less play for children, greater moral dangers: it means, unless we highly resolve to the contrary, an actual slackening of the effort to prevent these evils, even as they exist in normal times. The significance of the Departments of Civil Affairs in the American Red Cross in France—a department which has no analogy in the Red Cross of other nations—is that there is at least one very great and determined effort to prevent this culminating disaster. The Children's Bureau, the Bureau of Tuberculosis, and the Bureau of Refugees and Home Relief represent on a scale heretofore unprecedented, for which there never has been a similar need, a national participation in relief measures carried on in another country, with complete official and popular approval, as a part of the common effort to save civilization. It is a feature of the Alliance, although one which is spontaneous and unconstrained. It springs from the war, and supplements the military operations, but it began before we were actually in the trenches and it will have results far outlasting the war. It happens to be taking place in France because this is the field of the war. It is not a gift from America to France, so much as a common investment in all that makes for the security and enrichment of our common heritage.

THE EXPANDING DEMANDS FOR WAR RELIEF IN EUROPE

BY PAUL U. KELLOGG,
Editor of *The Survey*.

A recent Red Cross bulletin tells of food distributed (as a measure of preventive medicine), to supplement the school luncheons of 30,000 Paris school children. In one ward, the supplement was given in the shape of a mid-afternoon "gouter" of chocolate, and a "specially and scientifically compounded Red Cross bun," made from American sugar and white flour and French milk. Apply the recipe if you will to war relief: American good-will and resources and French self-help,—or Italian, or Belgian self-help. For, in any consideration of war relief on the western front, it must always be borne in mind that the great burden of it is not shouldered by outside agencies or even by the governments concerned, although that is the greater of the two,—but most of all by the people themselves.

At every stage, American help has had to adjust itself to existing institutions, points of view and habits. It has had to adjust itself to rapidly changing situations, resulting from military events. It has built up staffs piecemeal and drawn supplies mostly from sources 3,000 miles away and through uncertain and restricted channels of transportation. These things add to our enthusiasm, at cables telling of squads of Red Cross workers hurdling obstacles and serving the stream of refugees from the recent German offensives. These things must be borne in mind in any attempt later on, to pass judgment on the execution of the American Red Cross as a whole. At this juncture, there is no independent and inclusive body of facts as to the actual working out of Red Cross operations in the last twelve months which would enable a person to pass such judgment. Rather, we are in the position of laymen at the outset of a health campaign for the eradication, for example, of an infectious disease. We turn to the physicians and sanitarians and ask: "What is it you need to accomplish results?" And we can hold them responsible for results in so far as we give them the means, the equipment and the personnel which they say they need. That, is the attitude of the American public to the great overseas work of the American Red

Cross. We have confidence in many of the men who have been called to the service,—experienced in executives, transportation and purchasing, in medicine and engineering, in relief and child welfare and other phases of social work; we have supplied the War Council with such a relief fund as the world has never known; we recognize that the Red Cross has been handicapped, as has the army, in the matter of tonnage; we know that until this last month it was further handicapped by the short-sighted masculine army order that trained persons, nurses or social workers could not go overseas if they were women and had brothers in the service.

Because of these things, or in spite of them, we shall expect results. But what sort of results? And it is just here that the progress of medical and social work within the last thirty years, has tremendously broadened the base of our expectations and of our judgment; just here that the statements, the monthly reports and publicity matter issued by the Red Cross at Paris and Rome and Washington give us confidence that in conception, no less than in mass, American war relief is to prove as great a development over the standards of, for example, Spanish War days as has been the development in fighting weapons.

What some of these new conceptions are, how far they are drawn from the advances and inventions of peace times, will be clearer if we relate certain great phases of war relief to domestic developments. The historic field service of the Red Cross is the care of the sick and wounded. There is practical military justification for such service, although the professional militarists of Europe fought it until the Sanitary Commission in our Civil War carried conviction, that such field service is not an interference with battle. Rather it salvages an increasing number of casualties; it removes the dread of neglect which more than the fear of death may prey on the minds of the troops. Our medical and military observers, returning from the Balkan wars, held that this service was too essential to be left in the hands of any private agency; and it has since become with us an army function. From the stretcher bearers back to the base hospitals, the army medical department is charged with the care of the sick and wounded; and while the American Red Cross organizes and equips the base hospital units, these are mustered in as part of the military establishment.

This has relieved the Red Cross of its chief historic burden; it

has also, in a sense, thrown open to the Red Cross a wider opportunity for service as auxiliary to the army medical department—through installing rest stations and infirmaries on lines of communication, recuperation stations back from the war zone, neighborhood dispensaries in army villages, diet kitchens and homes for nurses, auxiliary plants for the manufacture of anaesthetics, ice and splints; and through building up great reserves of emergency supplies of everything from a bandage to a mobile hospital. The head of the Military Affairs Department of the American Red Cross in Paris wrote last January:

Today we must look forward six months and calculate the needs of an army fighting in summer weather, while at the same time we must supply the winter needs of the soldiers at the ports of entry, on the American army lines of communication, in the training camps and at the hospitals. We are the army's emergency depot. If the army wants splints or dressings or magazines for our recreation huts, diet delicacies—any number of a hundred different things—we supply them in the natural course of the day's work. But beyond that we must be supplied with vast stocks of material in the right quantities and of the right kind to meet the unexpected.

In everything human, somebody's guesses go wrong, and the outstanding justification of this Red Cross procedure as a medical army of reserve, is the plight in which earlier in the war the British would have been in the near East, had the British Red Cross not built up at Malta great reserves for the army medical service to fall back upon.

Since the Red Cross took them over last summer, the hospital supply and surgical dressings services, which today serve both French and American hospitals, have been doubled and trebled in capacity. In the course of the first six months, the monthly output of the former had increased from 2,826 bales sent to 1,116 hospitals to 4,740 bales sent to 1,653 hospitals. Not a little of these supplies are drugs or instruments difficult to obtain or not on the regular army lists. Similarly last fall, the American Army Division of the Red Cross investigated a wide range of mobile plants and blocked out plans for operating experimental units under a "ravitaillement" service. These included portable kitchens to supply hot food to the wounded back of the casualty clearing stations, portable ice plants to supply hospitals with ice packs and refrigerated foods, portable laundries to serve field hospitals, portable sterilizing plants for serving surgeons at advanced dressing stations, dental and ophthalmolog-

ical ambulances and the like. There should be the same pressure upon the army medical department to keep abreast of the most advanced equipment in such directions, as upon the air service to keep abreast of plane and motor development. But as a foraging and demonstrating agency, more flexible than the military establishment, the Red Cross has a very real function.

What is missing, or out of reach, or emergent, or new, or out of routine, or experimental in medical and surgical equipment and practice is, in truth, a special charge upon the forethought and ingenuity of the Red Cross, relieved as it is of the main burden of care for the sick and wounded.

Let me cite two further illustrations in which the Red Cross has pushed to an outer belt of service. At one of its three military hospitals, in or near Paris, a corps of bacteriologists has been at work studying the causes of trench fever. It has organized a research society, subsidized individuals to investigate surgical problems and set going a medical and surgical information service. This brings the isolated army doctor or surgeon promptly in contact with the experience of his fellows facing similar problems and with the experience of the French and British profession.

The second illustration is the dispensary service instituted in the region where American troops were first quartered. The health of the men was seen to be bound up in the health of the countryside. Most of the local doctors had long since been called out of civil practice and had gone into the French army. For example, but eighteen physicians were found in a district which before the war had employed a hundred, and these eighteen were aged men. Where American troops were encamped near by or were billeted in the villages, these dispensaries opened their doors to the neighboring people and district nursing was instituted. Under the genito-urinary service of the army medical department, a special corps of army physicians was assigned to the Medical and Surgical Division of the Red Cross, which itself supplied the nurses, motors and equipment. Each motor unit made up of one doctor and two nurses was assigned to a route of villages, much after the manner of a rural mail delivery. Concern for community conditions (as distinct from camp activities such as carried on by the Y. M. C. A. and the Knights of Columbus), early led to the development of the war camp community service on this side of the water. There is need for its pro-

jection to France. In the meanwhile this little constellation of forty dispensaries, centering at Neufchateau in the first American army zone, was a recognition that sick soldiers are more than patients; they are human beings with a matrix of life and human relations which has to be reckoned with by the doctor in uniform or by any one who would successfully deal with them. It was the same revolutionary change in outlook which lies back of the rise of hospital social service in American cities. To cure a patient in a bed is of no practical use if he goes back to the same tenement conditions that made him sick or under the same workshop stress that broke him. Frayed spirits and worried minds, we have come to see, no less than germs and wounds, lay men up and impair their fitness. And in our schemes for recreation, our health campaigns and social reform movements affecting food and environment, we set out to prevent these things.

The recreational work of the Y. M. C. A. is described elsewhere in this number. But two phases of Red Cross work should be noted here, which are a radical expansion from its historic succoring of sick and wounded, but which by the analogies just suggested, will be seen to be kin in the same way that a modern health department is kin to a primitive hospice.

One is that development of the home service of the Red Cross at Washington, which is placing representatives with the American army units abroad, through whom the soldier who is worrying about his family can have direct word from a friendly visitor in his home town and can go at his soldiering knowing that help is within reach in case of trouble. This is a modern application to states of mind of the more customary bedside work of letter-writing for the sick and wounded.

The other development is that of the canteens of the French army division of the Red Cross. Something like three million men were fed in the canteens at the Paris terminals in the four fall months. Twenty thousand soldiers a day were being served at canteens located on junction points on the lines of communication. Before these last were opened, troops on "permission" not infrequently had to spend hours waiting for trains to take them home, without means for rest or food or shelter in case of rain. Such junction points were poor stepping stones from the trenches to the homes of France; such men, tired, dirty, hungry, infested with trench vermin, were poor

emissaries. Hot meals, sleeping quarters, wash rooms, clean linen, writing rooms—these make up the new stepping stones. In addition, 700,000 rations had been served up to January 1 by rolling canteens, each manned by an American and French convoyer. A French major in command of an advanced post 400 yards from the German lines attributed the fact that there was no sickness in his battalion to these canteens. The men went in by companies to a marshy wood where the water prevented them from digging in deep. The canteen workers carried in kettles of bouillon and chocolate which could be heated up over small fires; and the food and warmth forefended against the effects of the wet and winter.

Thus it would appear that had this war been like other wars—like such wars as England has known in the past, for example, with expeditionary forces sent overseas and the course of home life proceeding much as usual—the scope of Red Cross work would nevertheless have had to be expended and socialized. But, of course, war itself has changed, or rather, tendencies which manifested themselves in our Civil War and the Franco-German War of the 'Seventies have come to dominate. While with us, in our second year, many of the characteristics of the expeditionary war still hold, with the continental nations those characteristics have long since given way to others. Whole peoples are fighting: in a very real sense it is a struggle of nations. And, as the greatest charge upon Red Cross energies and resources, comes civilian war relief.

Several causes have entered into this American development, so distinctive from that of the British Red Cross, which clings much more closely to its task as adjunct to the military arm. Since the San Francisco earthquake, the Red Cross had become our national agency for disaster relief in the case of cyclones, floods and fires. Even this past year, and all but unheralded, our American body has been doing a remarkable work in aid of the Chinese flood sufferers, at the same time that it has been projecting its great war-time undertakings on the western front. Again, in our long period of neutrality, American sentiment and desire to help naturally found expression in scores of war relief organizations operating notably in France. When the American Red Cross commission first reached Europe, it was found that the American army itself was prepared to take over the care of the sick and wounded, and that the Y. M. C. A. proposed to hold fast to the recreational and related activities

among the soldiers, which it had carried on so successfully on the Mexican border. It was clear that months would elapse before American troops would be in France in such numbers as to employ the resources and staff which the Red Cross could bring to bear, even if these phases of work were not closed to it. At the same time it was increasingly clear, that throughout all of these months, there was pressing need to carry home to the Frenchman in the street and in the ranks the fact that America was with them.

A similar call came in the weeks following the invasion of Northern Italy last October when to spread a single blanket more in an "asilo" or stick up a flag at a station counted incalculably. The American men and women on the ground, who for two and three years had been putting in unstinted time and effort on existing war relief agencies, were eager to persuade the incoming Red Cross administration as to the opportuneness of this civilian work, on military no less than on humanitarian grounds. More than that, the commission was fortunate in mustering to its service by early fall, a group of trained executives in social work who scored a series of definite accomplishments on this civilian side, which carried conviction both at home and in the minds of the French public. In the recent weeks of counter-offensive American troops have played an increasing and stirring rôle on the western front. In the earlier weeks of strain the German drives were stemmed and held. The work which the American Red Cross and other agencies had carried on among French troops and French civilians throughout the fall and winter, was a very definite element in building up that resistance in war zone and provinces alike on which hung the fate of the republic.

But while these considerations entered into the decisions which made for Red Cross war relief development, the major and governing one, after all, was the fact already referred to: namely, that not armies alone but whole peoples were in the struggle. Back from the battle-fronts have come not only streams of sick, wounded and gassed soldiers, but streams of civilian refugees. Their hunger and thirst, their infirmity and distress have cried out for help which could not be gainsaid. Their helplessness has been also a source of military embarrassment; their health and salvage a source of national strength.

In his little summary of "The Red Cross on the Front Line

in the Great Battle of 1918," Edward Eyre Hunt, chief of the Bureau of Reconstruction and Relief of the American Red Cross, Paris, draws a picture of such a stream of civilians last March:

From the human side the evacuation is, and always will be, indescribable. It was a vast lava flow of men, animals, and materials. Every little country road and every highway was jammed with the endless lines of camions moving back off the aviation camps, pulling out immense guns, salvaging military supplies of all sorts, and at the same time removing the civilians and their little possessions. The immense importance of the agricultural work in the devastated district, was symbolized by the presence of batteries of American tractor plows, shuffling along in the midst of convoys of camions, and by the yokes of oxen or teams of horses pulling out Brabant plows, drills, cultivators, disk harrows, reapers and binders. Civilians came away in every conceivable vehicle, in wheelbarrows, in baby-carriages, in little dog-carts, in farm wagons; but most of them came on foot, walking in the ditches besides the long lines of troops. Roads were as dusty as in midsummer. Every tree, every blade of grass by the wayside was white with the fine powder churned up by innumerable wheels and feet.

The refugees in their weak misery, and the soldiers in their stout-hearted calm passed each other on the roads; the one moving forward to stop the invaders, the other fleeing back to where they were shortly stopped by their new friends, men and women whom they had come to trust—the workers of the American Red Cross and its affiliated societies. It was like some mediaeval pageant, for the weak and the strong, the dazed and the keen all bore spring flowers, yellow daffodils or pale anemones, which they gathered as they went along.

The American workers who had been engaged in the devastated region, now for a second time become a great battlefield, deployed all manner of vigorous aid to these folk. Motor trucks and Fords were set going as a "dry land ferry service," carrying the aged, the women and children back to the bridges over the River Somme. Canteens were set going at cross roads and rail heads; food and medical aid given out to the fugitives on their way to Paris and thence to points of refuge.

This was the second of the great emergencies of the sort in which the American Red Cross has functioned since the United States' entry into the war. The first was that in Italy, last fall, before the permanent Red Cross commission to Italy had started from the United States, and when a temporary force of executives was dispatched to Rome from the French organization. In France this spring—in Picardy, in the country back of the Flanders front, and later in the region of the Marne, the Red Cross for the first time was on the field, with rolling stock and warehouses, medical and re-

ief workers, when the crises broke. While primary responsibility had to rest with the resident military and civil officials, there are many indications that, in promptness, vigor and adaptability, this American help was of the sort which we have come to expect from the Red Cross in times of domestic disaster. In gathering up broken families and getting them to safety, the work was analogous to such emergent disaster relief.

There has been another stream of war refugees less spectacular less emergent, but in other respects not less heart rending, which the Red Cross has dealt with since last December. These are the "rapatries"—or fugitives from the regions of occupied France transferred by the German Government to Switzerland, thence sent to the clearing station at Ebian. Prior to the March offensives, a convoy of six hundred "rapatries"—those who had neither friends nor relatives to receive them—left the frontier each day to be housed in some one of the departments of France. Since last fall, the Red Cross through its children's bureau has aided in the medical examination and care of the incoming little folk at Ebian. In fifteen weeks, 34,228 children were examined. Last December the French Government asked the American Red Cross to assist in the reception of the "rapatries" at the point of placement, and this soon became a first charge of the Bureau of Refugees and Relief which by April first, was represented in fifty-eight of the seventy-six uninvaded departments of France. Seven thousands "rapatries" were thus aided in January, most of them industrial discards whom Germany had returned because they could do little work—old women, women with little children, and children under fifteen. The Red Cross delegates have helped in the extremely difficult task of placing them in industries where they could become self-supporting, in bettering housing conditions, and furnishing food, clothing and furniture, which last is paid for by the refugees on the instalment plan. By arrangement with the French Government, American coal was turned over to the French Ministry of Armanents at an Atlantic port, and its equivalent was withdrawn by the Red Cross delegates in small amounts from the local reserve stores in the departments. Thus fuel could be obtained quickly for these new households. This whole service was, of course, turned to immediate use when trains of refugees from the war zone were sent down this spring to the departments of the south and east.

Here, if one were looking for an analogy in American social work, it would be that of the immigrant aid societies which have helped incoming families to get a foothold in our American towns and cities only. Following the invasion of Northern Italy last fall, the Red Cross promoted similar work through its system of regional representatives, and interestingly enough, coöperated in several cities with a voluntary agency which had originally been created to help emigrants—the Umanitaria.

The month following the invasion, a Red Cross committee of three made a tour of the peninsula from the Piave line to Sicily to explore this problem of settlement of refugees in the cities and countrysides of a war beset nation. It brought forward a constructive program for refugee work based on French experience, covering such factors as furniture, health, employment, and protection, through which the Red Cross might coöperate in preventing the crystallization of those abnormal living conditions which may be worse in their consequences than the more spectacular flight from home. To quote a paragraph which will show the general approach of the committee:

We find refugees living in hotels, hospitals, convents, schools, all kinds of converted buildings, some admirable as far as physical comfort is concerned, others leaving much to be desired even in this respect. This manner of life is one which should be ended as soon as possible. Even if clean and warm and commodious, they seldom afford possibility for a normal home life, for privacy, for natural employment. In one city, for example, some four hundred men, women and children were living in the wards of a hospital under conditions as institutionalized as those of an almshouse, as promiscuous as those of the steerage of an ocean liner.

Of course the worst conditions are not to be found in the refugees but in overcrowded rooms in private tenements or in old and filthy hotels. We have frequently seen eight or ten, and in one instance as many as fifteen persons in a single living-room and it is an urgent part of the housing problem to enable such families to move from their congested and insanitary "furnished" rooms into decent dwellings. We must bear in mind that the refugee families have in many instances been accustomed to very much higher standards of living than those even of the self-supporting working people in the communities where they now are. Many of them own property and all of them household goods which they have had to leave behind. They are in the position of people who have lost everything by a fire or a flood. They are not in danger of being injured by prompt and generous assistance in such an emergency. They are in grave danger of demoralization and injury from being left in their destitute condition without employment, without privacy and wholesome atmosphere of family life, and without

the social environment of the neighborhood, to which they have been accustomed. The best form of relief, therefore, would seem to be assistance with furniture such as would enable them to take suitable accommodations in a place where by their own labor, supplemented by the government allowances, they can become self-supporting. To make good some part of their war losses in this way, would be analogous to social insurance.

In France, public and private agencies, French and American, have long been dealing with this resident refugee problem. Even before the repatriations of the fall and winter and the evacuations of this spring, the numbers involved were staggering. The total of French and Belgian refugees in 1918 was placed, roughly, at 1,500,000, of whom between eight and nine hundred thousand were so destitute that they had received government aid either in the form of transportation or the monthly allocations. Since the refugees are mainly women and children and invalid men, and since many of the families have no able bodied workers at all, the allowance from the government and from existing French agencies has been supplemented in many cases out of American Red Cross funds. The level of life under what are practically exile conditions is difficult at best, but the effort has been to attack certain vulnerable points where inertia could be overcome and regenerative forces within the families could assert themselves. Health conditions have been attacked through special dispensaries and health centers for refugees.

In the cities and towns of the provinces, as in Paris, [wrote Edward T. Devine in outlining the work of the Bureau], the greatest single blessing that can be conferred will be to move as many as possible of the "refugee" families from the so-called furnished rooms into houses or apartments in which the living conditions will be more tolerable, the overcrowding and the danger to health less, and the moral atmosphere more like that of the normal French family before the war. The essentials are dwellings, furniture and fuel. It is not a question of permanent support but of a substantial lift to enable the largest possible number of families to be re-established in something like a normal household life. Barracks erected wholesale would not solve the problem. The people must live sufficiently near their work and where the children can obtain an education. However inexpensive, the apartment should be decent and even, if possible, attractive. Only by such means can the depression and discouragement which are the inevitable result of three years' physical hardship, accompanied nearly always by repeated bereavement and long-continued anxiety, be in some degree lessened. Only in such ways can American generosity take up its appropriate and modest share of the accumulated misery and anguish of the three years of war in France.

The matter of housing has been approached from still another angle. Following the lead of an able Frenchwoman who had

taken houses that were only partially constructed when the war broke out, finished them, furnished them, and installed some 3,000 families, the bureau last fall made a census of unfinished apartment buildings in Paris, and thereupon made arrangements with various French refugee and housing organizations for the completion of buildings to house 5,000 persons. In all cases the Red Cross provided furnishings; in most, it made advances to cover the cost of the final stages of construction;—sums which will be repaid later from rentals. At Havre, a seaboard town, where 50,000 additional people have come since the outbreak of the war, but where there has been no house building whatever in that interval, the Red Cross through its Commission for Belgium appropriated money for the erection of a temporary village for Belgian refugees.

But it has of course been in the war zone itself, and especially in what was called the liberated area—the region evacuated by the Germans in March 1917 only to be the scene of fresh offensives this spring—that the Red Cross had broached the further and more permanent problem of rehabilitating families not in the cities that harbored them, but in their own villages and countrysides. The war zone had been divided into six main districts: warehouses were stocked, district agents placed and American and French "oubres" supported in giving out work and supplies, patching roofs and stables for the winter, plowing land and the like. The French Government was itself engaged in the largest tasks of barrack building and cultivation. But in the six months ending January 1, the Red Cross had shipped some 40,000 articles to the devastated area, from pumps to clear polluted wells to window glass to repair damage done by air raids. This work fell under its Bureau of Reconstruction and Relief, and is a forecast of the first steps toward the reconstitution of civilian life once invaders are gone from northern France. As a matter of fact, actual loss in Red Cross equipment or building this spring was small, for little more than temporary patch-work had been attempted by its own repair crew or by its affiliated organizations such as the Friends' Unit. Relationships had however, been established with people which counted tremendously at the time of the drive, and which will be invaluable in the period of reconstruction to follow.

A field worker is quoted as saying:

When the material works were lost, the best of all remained, that best which, after all, was the inner purpose of it all. The influence of neighborliness, friend-

ship, kindness, sympathy—these are made of stuff that no chemistry of war can crush, any more than death can cut off the influence of a man's personality. We face half a year's work torn to pieces. Yet I believe the influence of our work will live in the lives of our French neighbors, and in our own lives. I believe the fact of the final sacrifice will deepen its effect.

The cables told of the return of peasants around Chateau-Thierry in the very wake of the counter-offensive. In all such primitive work of rehabilitation, the Red Cross worker has been not so much the pioneer as the follower of the farmer or villager who is fired with the notion of getting back to home and land. And from one end of the western front to the other, this work of rehabilitation is, of course, shot through with harbingers of the new day of peace and reconstruction—of the free homes of a free people. The Belgians are planning alike the rehabilitation of towns and flooded land. On the Dutch border their King Albert Fund is gathering portable houses to be carried to the old sites as shelters for the first builders. The Venetians transported some of their groups of work people intact, so that they could be self-supporting economic units while Venice was in danger, and could resume their work-a-day life again on their return. There is a ferment in Italy among the peasants for agricultural and land reform. Government, employers and labormen in England speak in terms of reconstruction. But it is, of course, in northern France that that term had its most excruciating meaning.

The part which the American Red Cross can and will be able to play in permanent reconstruction remains to be seen. But its sequence to the phases of war relief which have been described, once the currents of the refugee families are turned back to the stricken countrysides, needs no demonstration. And its appeal to the imagination of America, and through the imagination, to the heart and pocket-book, is such as should warrant the Red Cross in its planning of a post-war work as vigorous and meaningful as that which it has engineered while the war is on. A beginning has been made in assigning George Ford, formerly expert of the New York City Planning Commission, to the Red Cross Department of Civil Affairs, to co-operate with French authorities and to direct the part which the Red Cross will play in an educational campaign to improve houses and villages from a sanitary point of view without destroying the characteristic regional architecture. A public health administrator and a

practical agricultural director were to be added to the staff last spring; and word comes from France that with their indomitable spirit, the French architects and agriculturalists and officials continued their weekly meetings without break throughout the spring offensive.

But reconstruction is a matter of more than brick and mortar, fence and well. Reconstruction after the war may be too late. The regenerative and recreative processes are needed in France today if the future is to hold not only safety but life and the fullness thereof for the people of the republic. And here enters in the far-flung work of the Civil Affairs Department in conserving the childhood of France, in promoting health, and in working in other directions, which could be made the subject not of one but several articles very much longer than this. The Civil Affairs Department's budget for the six months ending April 30 last totaled 40,548,658 francs and the staff under the directorship of Homer Folks included 738 persons operating at 120 towns and cities of France and at nine points in the war zone. Eight civilian hospitals and forty dispensaries and dispensary stations were in operation. To follow its workers to their tasks it would be necessary to go to a dispensary in the roaring steel center of Saint Etienne; to a studio in the Latin quarter where life-like copper masks are made for "mutiles"; to the hen-coops and harness shops of the training farm at Chenonceaux; to a war zone village as a camion load of old folks leave it and as the shots from the machine guns patter in the streets; to Lyons, with a baby-saving show in full swing—necessary to go not only "somewhere" but "everywhere" in France. And this would leave out of consideration the corresponding development in Italy and in what remains of free Belgium under the parallel commissions,—all under the American Red Cross Commissioner to Europe.

For not only has Red Cross work broadened into war relief devised to succor, conserve and rehabilitate the fugitives from the war zone, but war relief has in turn broadened—as charitable relief in our own domestic life long since broadened—into a constructive program of social work and engineering. This program is one calculated to strengthen the fiber of the nation in stress, and to help make secure in its different way, as the armies are making secure on the battle field, the future of a race to whom democracy and civilization are so much in debt that without pretension or misunderstand-

ing Americans can thus play their part in the household affairs of France.

A Frenchman of distinction, L. Chevillon, French member of the Belgian Relief Commission, in interpreting the work of the American Red Cross to his fellow countrymen, said:

Above all, the work of the American Red Cross should intensify the natural current of sympathy which exists between France and America. . . .

It should be an institution not conducted merely from the point of view of intelligent relief or of proper management, but it should be also a great work of inter-penetration of the two nationalities. . . .

Taking into account the fact that France has had to sacrifice to military necessities and has had therefore to give secondary consideration to the relief of war sufferings, it will help with its capital, its men, its personnel, with the ability of its technical advisers and with the work of all its staff, all those institutions which have not been able to come to a complete development in the midst of the universal drama, which has brought them into being. It will hasten the solution of certain problems which appear to the French minds as still far distant. It will busy itself with the needs of orphans, children, the tuberculous, "refugees," "repatriates." It will study the great problems of after-the-war, such as depopulation, rehabilitation of households, reconstitution of devastated areas, and in a general way will do its best to prepare a thorough and rapid renaissance of all the vital forces of the country.

BELGIUM AND THE RED CROSS—A PARTNERSHIP

BY ERNEST P. BICKNELL,

Lieutenant-Colonel, American Red Cross, Commissioner to Belgium.

The Commission for Belgium, of the American Red Cross, has its headquarters at Sainte-Adresse, a suburb of Havre, France, which is the seat of the Belgian Government. The work of the commission is not limited by geographical lines, but is intended to assist Belgians, both military and civilian, wherever they are in need, either within free Belgium or in allied countries or neutral countries. It is to be recalled that the greater part of Belgium is held by the Germans, but that approximately 600,000 citizens of Belgium are refugees in England, France, Holland and Switzerland, where they are entirely cut off from home and from their ordinary and normal environment, resources, laws, customs and associates. These unhappy people are very widely dispersed in the countries

named and are gathered in groups ranging from a score or so in small villages to aggregations amounting to approximately 70,000 in Paris, probably as many in London, and perhaps 30,000 in Havre.

The Belgian government itself is established in an alien land, its usual revenues entirely cut off, and dependent wholly upon money loaned to it by its Allies. Many necessary services which would be provided by the government in the case of any of the other Allies, the Belgian Government cannot provide for its people because of a lack of resources and a lack of facilities to solve the problems of food and clothing, transportation, hospital service, and the care of children.

It should be added that besides the 600,000 Belgian refugees in alien countries, there remain in the small corner of Belgium still unconquered, a population of approximately 75,000 persons who live under conditions of extreme difficulty and constant peril as they are at all times within reach of the enemy's guns and are subject to bombardment by enemy aviators.

For the purpose of this summary, the work of the Commission for Belgium will be classified by headings.

MILITARY HOSPITALS

It has been necessary for Belgium to send a large proportion of her sick and wounded soldiers for care into French hospitals. She has, however, maintained a number of hospitals under the direct charge of the sanitary service of her army or of her Red Cross society. The American Red Cross has assisted the Belgian hospitals in gifts of important electrical apparatus, surgical equipment, halls of recreation for the hospital patients, water and bathing installations, hospital supplies, games, amusements, etc. In the instance of the Belgian Red Cross hospital at Wulveringhem, the Commission for Belgium has contributed largely to the construction of a new hospital which the Belgian Red Cross was unable to complete from its own funds.

The military hospitals which the Commission for Belgium has aided are, in Belgium: La Panne, Wulveringhem, Beveren, Hoogstadt and Cabour; in France: Le Havre, Aberville, Angerville, Mortain, Rouen, Port-Villez, Sainte-Adresse and Montpellier. These hospitals accommodate a total of approximately 9,000 patients.

Advanced surgical posts almost in the front line trenches are now being provided for the instant care of those suffering from wounds which cannot bear transportation to hospitals. Necessary surgical equipment for first line surgeons is also being provided on an extensive scale.

WELFARE WORK FOR SOLDIERS

Work for soldiers, not in hospitals, is restricted to those behind the lines who have been sent back to recuperate from the hardships of the trenches or are convalescent from wounds or illness or are stationed on lines of communication.

The Belgian Army is cut off from its own country. The families of most of the soldiers are in occupied Belgium. The soldiers, in many thousands of instances, have had no word from their families for more than three years. When they get permission to leave the front for a short rest, they cannot go home, but must go among strangers who, in many instances, do not understand their language. Eighty per cent of the army is Flemish.

The Belgian soldier receives pay amounting approximately to nine cents per diem. This does not permit him to accumulate any savings. He cannot pay the expenses involved in going away from the front for rest even when he has permission to do so. The result of this is that thousands of these men have had no furlough since the war began; no chance to get away for a taste of normal life, rest or enjoyment. No fact is more fully recognized than that soldiers must have an occasional opportunity to get away from the monotony and the rigors and privations of life at the front, if they are to retain their spirit and their health.

The American Red Cross is doing what it can to remedy this unhappy situation among the Belgian soldiers. The work of amelioration aims first to make easier the lot of the soldier in active service behind the lines and second to make it possible for the soldiers to take and enjoy the furloughs to which they are entitled from time to time. To make this plain, it should be explained that the soldier's time when on duty is divided into three shifts. He spends a period in the first line trenches, then moves back a short distance, perhaps two or three miles, and spends a second period on intermediate duty ("demi-repos") where he has not a great deal of responsibility but lives very uncomfortably and is subject to

instant call to the trenches in any emergency. Finally he goes further back to quieter places where he remains a few days "en repos" but with large numbers of his fellows and without opportunity to go away alone to visit friends or see new places or enjoy complete quiet and rest. At the end of this third period he again takes his turn in the first line trenches and begins the round all over again. Naturally on occasions of great military activity this routine is interrupted.

In addition to the régime here described, each soldier, once in four months, is entitled to a "permission" (a furlough) of ten days. When on "permission" the soldier is free from all military duty and may go away to visit friends or to rest quietly or even to take temporary employment and earn a little money for his own use or to send to his family. Parenthetically, it is surprising how many of the Belgian soldiers on "permission" seize the opportunity to earn a little money by hard work. Several patriotic agencies devote themselves to finding or providing employment for those who desire it.

The welfare work of the Red Cross is among the soldiers on duty at the front, during the second and third periods of their routine as described above, and for those who need assistance to enable them to take the permissions to which they are entitled and which many of them cannot take without help. Help is also given toward making life more tolerable for soldiers employed at industrial centers, in munitions works, at important seaports, etc.

This attempt to soften the hard conditions under which the Belgian soldier lives, far from his own country and totally severed from his people, takes many forms. For the soldiers at the front it may broadly be divided as follows:

Food, which is supplied through two types of organizations: first, canteens which serve meals and hot drinks at centers where the clientele is constantly changing; second, messes where small regular groups take two meals per diem.

Rest and recreation in the form of reading and writing rooms, recreation barracks and tents, theatrical entertainments and moving pictures, music, libraries both stationary and circulating, educational classes, athletic fields, equipment and contests, games, prizes for excellence in athletics and class work, etc.

Individual gifts to men who have been decorated or have been

cited for especially courageous or meritorious conduct. To every soldier who thus proves his mettle the Red Cross sends a letter of congratulation and a small present as a token of appreciation. Gifts are also given to severely wounded men in hospitals to cheer and comfort them. Substantially 6,000 men a month share in these gifts which include the most varied articles.

For soldiers on "permission" and for soldiers stationed on lines of communication and at munitions centers the work of the Red Cross takes the form of rest homes (usually fine chateaux with spacious grounds and farm lands), comfortable and cheap lodgings in cities with economical restaurants, club rooms provided with reading matter, writing materials, games, theatrical entertainment, assembly halls for lectures, concerts, etc., and in some instances a small sum in cash for pocket money while resting.

The plants or establishments of a fixed character through which the Red Cross works number thirty-two at this writing (June 22), and the number of Belgian soldiers who are using them will average something over 25,000 each day. This does not include an extensive system of recreation tents and canteens attached to the soldiers' cantonments and billets for the use of the men on intermediate military duty (the second period of the three described earlier in this article). These tents and canteens, maintained by the Red Cross, are moved about with the shifting of troops and camps. They number not fewer than fifty and provide entertainment and refreshment for probably 30,000 men daily.

It may be of interest to speak somewhat more specifically of a few helpful activities which have given great satisfaction to the Belgian soldiers.

Athletic competitions. This work, which stimulates the soldiers physically and mentally, is of increasing importance. As a preliminary to both large and small competitions, the prizes are sent on and exhibited. In the larger or regimental competitions, a very large proportion of the men enter, at least 2,000 taking part per regiment. Among the events are football, "balle-pelote," rifle and machine-gun shooting and foot races. There are also company competitions, and companies as well as clubs and rest stations are fitted out with athletic goods.

Books. The library system is very complete. There are two large central libraries which have a wide selection for the soldiers

"en repos." There are also 800 cases of 100 books each—a case for each battery or company—for men on intermediate duty ("en demi-repos"). The two large libraries are supplemented by the *Livre du Soldat Belge*, a society supported by the American Red Cross which supplies every soldier with a book which he chooses himself and keeps as his own. If he wishes to change it, it goes into one of the two large libraries, and the society buys him another book which he may select. This comprehensive scheme supplies the men "en repos" with a very large choice of books; those on duty, but with some spare time, with a selection of 100; and the man in the trenches with a book in his pocket which is his own property. Probably 30,000 books are out of these libraries if not actually being read every day. A large proportion of them are technical in character.

Entertainments. The Red Cross pays expenses, with the exception of board and transportation, of the companies of actors and musicians who are sent to give entertainments to the soldiers at the front. Several hundred men are entertained every day by each troupe.

Cinemas are operating in ten centers, delighting thousands daily. More are being installed as occasion offers. The Red Cross not only pays for the plant, but helps to rent films and meet operating expenses.

Phonographs, after cinemas, are the most popular source of amusement, and over forty have already been supplied to the smaller centers.

Educational program. A large and valuable educational work carried on through the "*Belgische Standaard*" is subsidized by the Red Cross. Sixteen reading rooms are maintained in free Belgium and Northern France, special dramatic and literary libraries have been formed, and stereopticon lectures are provided. The educational work in the narrower sense of the term is divided into primary courses (5,000 students), which are given directly. Correspondence courses prepare pupils for state examinations (1,200 pupils), and for professional work (650 students), including mechanics, metallurgy, wood-working and type-setting. Art is encouraged by exhibitions and 800 men are studying philosophy and theology. Thus, 7,650 students are regularly enrolled. The committee not only supplies teachers and courses, but paper, pens, books, etc., and

in addition, does welfare work by distributing tobacco, soap, foot-
balls, accordions, chocolate, cards, and writing-paper.

ASSISTANCE TO NURSES

Belgian nurses in military hospitals receive compensation at the rate of seven francs a day. From this pay five francs a day is deducted to cover the cost of room and food. The nurse therefore has two francs a day from which to pay for clothing and all incidental and personal expenses. Like the Belgian soldier, the nurse cannot save money enough to take her away from the hospital for a rest and vacation when her opportunity comes; nor can the worn-out or convalescent nurse afford the period of rest and extra diet which her condition demands.

The commission has undertaken to maintain a small convalescent home in which nurses suffering from overstrain or who are recovering from illness may find a few weeks of rest and quiet and good food amidst agreeable surroundings. The commission has also made it possible for every nurse to take her vacation when her turn comes, by giving her a small cash grant sufficient to meet her necessary expenses. This arrangement applies to 600 nurses.

CIVILIAN HOSPITALS

In time of war the health of the civil population has a direct relation to the health of the army. This is doubly true as regards the civil population in the midst of which the army is operating and has its encampments and its billets. An epidemic of a comparatively harmless disease among the civilians of a village may spread to an army with disastrous results.

Apart then from the humanitarian and economic aspects of the problem of health conservation among the civil population, there is, in the allied countries of Europe today, the additional duty of protection for our armies. Tuberculosis, typhoid, diphtheria, pneumonia, smallpox, measles, mumps,—the whole familiar list,—have a multiplied horror when their effect upon an army is contemplated. And when contagious disease appears in an army it has usually had its beginning among the civil population.

Belgian civilians who have taken refuge in neighboring countries are thus separated from the hospitals and physicians and other guards to health to which they have been accustomed. They do not

know the language or the laws or the provisions for health protection in the countries in which they now find themselves. They have great difficulty in finding healthful living accommodations, especially in cities. Their resources are gone and they are compelled to pay high prices for wretched living rooms while they find it difficult to provide enough nourishing food for their families. The complete uprooting of these ultra-conservative, home-loving people, their bewilderment, their separation from friends, the necessity of adjusting themselves to unfamiliar occupations—all these facts and others tend to break down morale and to create conditions unfavorable to health.

One method by which the Red Cross is helping the Belgian people in exile is by coöoperating with them in the establishment of civil hospitals at strategic points when such institutions are not already available. Nine such hospitals have now been established, with a combined capacity for about 2,000 patients. This work is being extended as opportunity offers.

CARE OF CHILDREN

The lot of Belgian children is peculiarly hard. Their families refugees, and their fathers in the army, the means of giving them proper care have been reduced to a minimum. Especially in the small section of Belgium still free, the children have been subjected to great hardship and constant danger. While it is sad to see men wounded by shell and bomb, it is still more tragic and pathetic to find little children torn and mangled by the shells and bombs which the enemy has thrown upon Belgian territory. Many children and mothers have been killed and many others wounded. Especial efforts have been made to rescue as many as possible of these children from the dangerous and difficult position which they occupy in Belgium.

The work in behalf of Belgian children undertaken by the Commission for Belgium, follows four lines:

- a. Evacuation from zones of gas and shell attack.
- b. Evacuation from the semi-famine conditions in occupied Belgium.

c. Baby-saving work in congested refugee centers.

d. Baby-saving work at the front.

The Belgian Government, through the Minister of the In-

terior, has evacuated over 8,000 children from places of danger in free Belgium, and is caring for them in school colonies in old Normandy, along the coast from Calais to Dieppe and in Southern France. This burden long ago became too heavy for the Minister to bear, and the Commission for Belgium has therefore been helping during the past ten months. It has provided buildings, clothing, blankets, shoes, extra food, games, sewing machines, books, tools, cows, etc.

The Queen of Belgium has been active and generous in the rescue of children at the front, and the Commission for Belgium has built an additional pavilion for her colony at Vinckem to care for very young children. The evacuation of children from occupied Belgium likewise has been undertaken under the leadership of the Queen. The children on arriving do not look emaciated, but are undernourished, and in many instances suffer from rickets and lack stamina. Especially children from four to eight years old have suffered severely. In the lovely-hill country of Corrèze, France, at Le Glandier, was found an old Carthusian monastery which the Commission for Belgium has turned into a beautiful home for 750 children from the eastern part of Belgium. Four other suitable locations in great country chateaux and monasteries have been obtained in Southern France, and the children are coming in through Germany and Switzerland to fill them. Eventually the number of children in this group of colonies will reach 2,000 or more. Children from occupied Belgium are also coming to colonies under the Minister of the Interior aided by the commission.

Almost from the beginning of the war Switzerland has been a place of refuge for children from Belgium. Generous and sympathetic Swiss people formed committees and organized to receive and care for these children, some of which came from free Belgium, fleeing before the advancing Germans and some from occupied Belgium behind the German lines. In 1916, the Rockefeller Foundation undertook the support of 500 of these children. Later the supervision of this effort, by arrangement with the foundation, was assumed by the Commission for Belgium of the Red Cross. The commission has extended its work in Switzerland to partial support of the Belgian children not included in the foundation's group of colonies. The total number of these children now under care in Switzerland is approximately 2,000.

Holland, first of all the neighboring countries to open its arms to the refugees from Belgium, has never faltered in the hospitality which government and people extended in those terrible days of panic and flight. But the people of Holland have themselves suffered bitter hardship as the war has progressed. The societies and committees organized to help refugees have found their resources dwindling while the cost of food and clothing and shelter has steadily increased. The Red Cross Commission for Belgium has undertaken to assist somewhat in bearing the burden of these agencies. It is helping especially in the care of children, by contributing to the funds of the societies in charge of them. The organizations to which financial help is now being given have permanent responsibility for more than 2,000 children, while giving temporary care annually to about 5,000.

Summarizing this work for Belgian children, it may be stated that the total number of children under colony care at this time is about 15,000 distributed among eighty-five colonies in France, free Belgium, Switzerland and Holland. In every colony, especial emphasis is laid upon health and education. Every colony has its regularly organized schools, taught by Belgian teachers under the general direction of the Minister of Sciences and Arts of the Belgian Government. With few exceptions, the colonies are in the open country where opportunities for play and work in the open air are all that could be desired. And in every colony also, provision has been made for the moral and religious instruction of the children.

At Havre, where the Belgian population is 30,000, and housing conditions are very bad, the commission has established a health center containing a children's dispensary, a crèche, and a maternity hospital, as the beginning of a campaign to save Belgian babies. From this center, doctors and nurses visit the children in their homes and teach mothers how to care for sick babies. Special diet and necessary clothing are also provided. Several thousand children are treated in this center every month.

At the front, where armies crowd every little Flemish village, seize the food, and cause inevitable disarrangement and demoralization, the mortality among babies is high. In coöperation with the proper authorities, the commission is gradually extending among the civilian population near the front, a system of care for babies which includes dispensary service and consultation with mothers,

home visiting, milk distribution and hospital care. At various points, also, crèches have been created for the care of babies whose mothers must work in munitions factories and other industries. Steadily, if the plans of the commission are not interrupted, it is intended to expand the provision for children, for in no other way is it possible to give service of greater importance to the Belgian nation than by the preservation of the lives of those on whom the nation's future depends.

REFUGEES

Problems which are confronted by the Belgian refugees are those of transportation, housing, food and clothing, medical care and employment. The able-bodied have little difficulty in obtaining employment, but it is always to be emphasized that a large proportion of the refugees are incapable of hard, steady work. The vigorous men are in the army. The younger women are usually the mothers of small children. A majority of the refugees are old men and women, mothers with children, and the sick or otherwise physically disabled.

In all parts of France, England, and Holland, these refugees are to be found. As the chief exodus from Belgium occurred in the first months of the war, most of them have become settled in the communities into which they were distributed at that time. Some have moved to points where employment was more available. It may be said that a majority of the refugees have solved their own problems and have assumed full responsibility for their own lives. Many have found self-support in munitions factories, or on farms or roads or as domestic servants. Ordinarily the Belgians in any community have come to form a sort of national colony with their own priests, their own relief committees and often their own schools and doctors. Recent military offensives, however, have driven other thousands into exile from free Belgium, while a varying number, forced out in earlier evacuations, have failed to get settled, and move from place to place. Thus there are always problems of transportation and readjustment to be solved.

Problems of health, ever present, require constant attention. Under the head of "Civilian Hospitals" the subject of health has been briefly discussed. It may be added here that a majority of the doctors and nurses of all the European allied countries have been

absorbed by the armies and that civilians find great difficulty in procuring proper medical attention. On the other hand, the importance of adequate medical care is increased, because the congestion of population in those centers into which refugees have crowded has accentuated the dangers from a lack of sanitation. War conditions have also decreased the supplies of wholesome foods and proper clothing while greatly augmenting their cost.

The Commission for Belgium of the Red Cross has attempted to enter into the lives of the refugee colonies sympathetically but wholly without ostentation. Particular care has been taken to respect the activities, customs, and institutions which the colonies have established during their years of exile. The Red Cross endeavors to avoid upsetting or confusing any local situation. It carries on its work through the agencies which the Belgians themselves have set up, supplementing their activities by means of money or relief supplies or friendly counsel. It acts always in co-operation with the governmental authorities whether local or national. Whenever and wherever a helpful work needs to be done and the Belgian agencies are unable to do it through their own resources, the Red Cross endeavors to step in quietly and lend a helping hand. A few concrete instances will illustrate the character of the work of the Red Cross in this connection, perhaps better than a more general description.

Evacuation of refugees. This is made necessary by every advance or withdrawal of the armies at the front. Generally these movements of armies find the civil populations who are occupying the territory involved, quite unprepared for departure. The people cling to their homes always in the hope that nothing will happen to force them away. Then when the necessity comes it allows no deliberation or study of a plan of action; the people must fly at once, taking with them such small articles as can be carried on their backs or trundled in wheelbarrows or handcarts. Occasionally a horse or an ox is available with a cart to take away some of the household goods. It is a time of breaking the bonds of a lifetime and abandoning treasured possessions, of hasty farewells, of confusion and bewilderment.

The people are instructed that they are to go at once to some designated point on the nearest railway line. There they are gathered together with their bundles and when enough have arrived to

make a trainload, a long line of box cars is shunted to a siding and the people are crowded on board with their belongings. They do not know how long they are to be on board the cars nor are they aware of their destination. The train moves away, travelling slowly, delayed by the necessity for keeping the tracks clear for military trains. The discomfort and the fatigue of such travel as this, when it extends into several days and nights without the opportunity for rest, constitute a very heavy tax upon the strength and endurance of the refugees. The sufferings of the sick and those weak and frail because of age or infancy, become intense. Death has not infrequently occurred on these refugee trains. There have been instances of entire trainloads of people being without food for a whole day or even more. These hardships are not the results of carelessness or indifference, but are an inevitable product of the military situation.

The Red Cross has been of some assistance in softening the distress and hardship of these evacuations. Along the Flanders front it has provided large motor-trucks, which have worked at top speed day and night removing the refugees from their places of danger to designated railway stations. Ambulances have carried the sick. Food supplies and clothing have been provided at the assembly points on the railroad; supplies of food, with doctors, interpreters, and nurses, have been put on board the trains on their departure. Within the period from the middle of March to the middle of April, it is probable that 30,000 refugees from this small part of the front were thus sent away in trains to distant places of safety. The Red Cross was, of course, not alone in this work: the representatives of the Belgian and French governments were active, and an ambulance unit of English Quakers gave most efficient service. This ambulance unit and the Red Cross worked as a single agency, all the ambulances and motor-trucks of both organizations being directed by a single head.

The Red Cross has provided clothing and food for these refugees upon reaching their destinations and at stopping points en route. While the movement of refugees is spasmodic and dependent upon military operations in general, there is, at the same time, a small but continuous movement of those who day by day are giving up the struggle for existence near the front. It is to be remembered that the areas behind the lines for a distance of many miles are al-

ways subject to aeroplane bombardment. Great destruction of lives and property has resulted in hundreds of communities from this cause. People at first think they can remain in spite of these bombardments but gradually the danger becomes more obvious, neighbors and friends are killed or injured, and their homes destroyed. Eventually, the constant menace overcomes the love of home and the desire to protect property, and the people gather together a few belongings and start in search of places of security among strangers. This steady movement is more easily controlled by the authorities, but there are always demands for assistance in the form of food and clothing and direction.

Shelter. Refugees from Belgium and the invaded part of France, repatriates from invaded France, and refugees from the areas near the fighting line have poured into those parts of France which are remote from danger, to the total number of probably 2,000,000 persons. This great body of homeless people has created an extremely acute housing problem in many cities. It is especially difficult for families with young children to find suitable accommodations, and this is particularly true of Belgian families, in part because these families are likely to be large, and in part because many of the Belgians do not speak French.

The Belgian Government and Belgian private agencies have made great efforts to provide shelter for their refugees, and, in this, the French authorities have coöperated most generously. Vacant monasteries, unoccupied chateaux, summer hotels, unused schools and groups of temporary barracks erected for the purpose have been utilized. The Red Cross has found an opportunity to assist in meeting the demand for shelter by providing furnishings for unfurnished buildings, by supplying food and clothing, and by the erection of barracks.

In the city of Havre, where many Belgian refugees are occupying dark, noisome and most unhealthful rooms, where frequently families of from four to eight persons occupy a single room, the Commission for Belgium has undertaken a building project which is not without interest. A tract of land, agreeably situated on a small hill in the outskirts of the city was taken, and a village of small cottages is now being erected. The ground had previously been provided with paved streets, while lines of water-mains and electric wires are conveniently near. This village will consist of one hundred

cottages, each of three or four rooms. At the rear of each cottage will be a small shed to be used as laundry and storage space. Each cottage will have a small garden plot and will be enclosed by a neat rustic fence. Electric light will be provided, and in the center of the village will be a public water supply. Two schoolhouses will meet the needs of the children, and a coöperative store, which is a familiar and successful institution among the Belgians, will be established in its own quarters. A central building will provide administrative headquarters for the village, and a meeting place for the people on all occasions.

The population of the village will consist of families selected from the worst quarters of the city, but no family which has less than four children will be granted a cottage in the village. The cottages will be rented fully furnished for thirty francs (six dollars) per month. If any occupant of the village cannot pay the rent, the payment will be made from some charitable source, but no cottage will be given gratuitously. The income from the rent of the one hundred cottages will meet all the expenses of keeping up the streets, attending to the plumbing, lighting, cleaning, repairs, etc.

This village which, at this writing, is well on toward completion, will be like a transplanted bit of Belgium. Not only will the people be Belgian, but the schools will be Belgian taught by Belgian teachers. A Belgian priest will look after the moral welfare of the people, and Belgians will have charge of the administration. When the war is ended, the cottages, which are all of the demountable type, may be taken down and shipped into Belgium, there to be set up again in some of the destroyed towns of that unhappy country.

Food and clothing. The distribution of food and clothing, as already stated, has been carried on chiefly through the established relief agencies of the Belgian people themselves, in their refugee colonies and through certain general, governmental and private organizations. This work has been widespread, extending into scores of communities and reaching many thousand persons.

A stock of food and clothing has been established near the front especially for the assistance of the civilians affected by military operations, and at the clearing houses near the front where the dislocated people are cared for temporarily, pending their despatch to safer regions. These clearing houses have been erected by the

Red Cross and several hundred persons are at all times to be found in them.

Clothing for discharged soldiers. Soldiers who are discharged from service because of disability, immediately become civilian—they are no longer permitted to wear the military uniform. Large numbers of them have no means with which to buy civilian clothing, and as they have been in the service for several years, they have not been able to preserve such civilian apparel as they possessed before the war. A very real need has been shown to exist for assistance to these men and the Commission for Belgium has accordingly undertaken to provide necessary civilian clothes for men who are not able to obtain such articles for themselves. The number of men thus provided with clothing by the Red Cross amounts to approximately 300 per month.

Miscellaneous activities. It is unnecessary to outline further the character or variety of the work of the Red Cross for refugees, although the range of effort continually expands, and the work which today is unimportant may tomorrow become vital. The Red Cross has encouraged, by money and advice, the establishment of workrooms in which refugees may be given self-supporting employment. It has assisted in the support of centers of social service and recreation; it has assisted in the establishment and maintenance of health centers; it has provided for the distribution of milk for children in many places in which milk is difficult to obtain; it has helped in controlling epidemics of disease; it has made possible the provision of supplies of pure water, and has provided bathing facilities and other means of health and cleanliness. It is unnecessary to prolong this list which might be much extended. It will be enough to say that the Commission for Belgium of the Red Cross has always kept its organization so elastic that it can extend its help to any urgent need, whether it be large or small, which affects the welfare of the Belgian refugees.

BELGIAN COÖPERATION

From the beginning the Commission for Belgium has acted on the principle that the Belgian governmental authorities and the Belgian leaders in private life are better prepared to administer the relief activities necessary to the interests of their people. Adhering to this principle, the Red Cross has avoided setting up ad-

ministrative relief units of its own. It says in substance to the Belgian authorities and leaders:

Yours is the chief responsibility; you know your people, their language, their customs, their needs, their habits of thought; this knowledge is essential to the wisest and most effective conduct of relief operations. The American Red Cross does not possess this knowledge, nor can it relieve you of your responsibility to your own; therefore, the Red Cross will not replace you or assume your duties of administration, but it wishes to establish sympathetic and cordial relations with you, to be a partner with you in all these works, to advise with you, and to help you bear the load wherever it becomes too great for your strength or resources.

The response of the Belgian leaders to this proposal of the Red Cross has been wholehearted, prompt, and complete. A coöperative relationship has grown up between the commission and the government through which the commission is in constant and cordial communication with the several ministers composing the government. Daily personal contact between the ministers and the representatives of the Red Cross have simplified and expedited all operations and activities. Any request or suggestion from a minister or from the Red Cross is communicated instantly and informally by personal conference, conclusions are quickly reached and followed promptly by whatever action is requisite.

I cannot permit myself to close this article without paying a tribute to the courage, the coöperative spirit, and the fine sense of responsibility on the part of the leaders of the Belgian people, whether in official or in private life, as we have learned to know them through a year of close and constant contact. To them and not to the staff of the Commission for Belgium is chiefly due the credit for whatever measure of success the commission has achieved.

CANADA'S WAR RELIEF WORK

BY SIR HEBERT AMES,¹

Ottawa, Canada.

To Canada's instant and unreserved adoption of the dependents of her soldiers as objects of sacred trust is due the Canadian Patriotic Fund, a form of war relief work peculiar to Canada, arising from her own particular problems and reflecting, in tangible form, her characteristics as a nation. To the sincerity of her promise made to the first of her soldiers to go overseas in the autumn of 1914 is due the thorough business methods which have characterized the management of the fund from its inception to the present time. To the broad vision of her Governor General, H. R. H., the Duke of Connaught, and the leading men and women of the nation is due the happy circumstance that from the start the fund was Dominion-wide in its workings whether of creation or administration. As a result of this wise forethought there was secured coördination and uniformity of both effort and sacrifice throughout the Dominion with a complete elimination of overlapping and its inevitable waste of time, energy and money, coupled with minimum results which would have been the inevitable result had local centres been made independent dispensers of relief.

INFLEXIBILITY OF GOVERNMENT PROVISION

Examination into the provision made for the dependents of its soldiers by the Canadian government drove home the fact that the entire scheme was worked out on a military basis which made home of secondary consideration. There was a separation allowance of \$20 a month for the wife of each married man, but the soldier's pay was according to rank instead of in proportion to his need. The size of his family and local conditions affecting the cost of living were not considered by the government although in real life both are determining factors in budget making.

This lack of elasticity did not appeal to the conference called at Ottawa to organize the patriotic fund. Individual sympathy with

¹ This article was prepared in the office of the Director of Public Information from facts supplied by the Honorary Secretary of the Canadian Patriotic Fund.

individual needs was conspicuously absent and conspicuously necessary if there was to be that close, old-fashioned neighborliness implied in the acceptance of these words of the nation. It is that touch which has endeared the fund to every Canadian, rich or poor, and that touch alone accounts for the magnificent response made to every appeal for contributions to the fund. It is that touch which causes every Canadian to regard the fund as his personal promissory note. He feels that he is standing back of his soldiers in a very near and individual sense.

NATURE OF RESPONSE OF THE PEOPLE

Proof of the wonderful response of the people is given in the two sets of statistics—enlistments for overseas service and applications for relief through the fund. In the autumn of 1914, Canada's overseas forces numbered 36,000. Within a year there were 165,000 of all ranks; by the next autumn the number had grown to 361,500 and only once, in 1915, did the monthly output of the fund exceed the income. In that year the monthly output increased from \$175,000 to \$325,000, showing how Canadians regarded the fund. These were anxious days for the executive and it was at this time that the great wisdom of the Dominion-wide idea became apparent. As a rule recruiting was greatest in provinces least favorably situated financially. Common service, common sacrifice, the principle of giving money or men saved the day. The basis for giving was that of ability; the basis for helping was that of need.

By 1916 the needs of the fund were placed at \$8,000,000. "Give till it hurts," became the slogan. Systematic allotment of each province's share of the total contribution was made. Ontario was asked for \$4,500,000; Quebec, \$1,500,000; the Maritime Provinces, \$700,000; Saskatchewan, Alberta and British Columbia, \$500,000 each. Every province was subdivided, each city and town asked to assume its share. Publicity was given the campaign through newspapers, posters, leaflets, buttons, Speakers' Patriotic League and skilled organizers of campaigns. The close of the year showed an increase of 20 per cent in demands on the fund and an increase of 50 per cent over the contributed amount asked in the campaign. On New Year's Day, His Royal Highness had asked for \$8,000,000; Canada's answer was \$11,573,345. Since June, 1916, the fund has expended an average of \$900,000 a month which

has given timely help to 165,000 individuals. This means that the promise has been kept to 60,000 men fighting "over there."

BULK OF FUND MEANS SACRIFICE

Since the campaign of 1916, responses have been more and more generous. Provinces and the larger cities have reached wonderful heights of generosity, but while individuals have given cheques for princely amounts the bulk of the fund has been contributed by the small wage-earners. This is, of course, most gratifying and shows how thoroughly the fund represents Canada's war spirit. British Columbia furnishes a striking case in point. Leading all other provinces in recruiting according to population, it is, nevertheless, essentially a province of wage-earners. Yet its contributions to the fund have been nothing short of marvelous.

In the mining towns it is the established practice among miners and smelters to contribute "a shift a month" to the fund. Trail, with a population of 4,000, contributes \$50,000 per year, or \$12.50 per capita. Rossland with a similar population gives \$36,000 per year; Headly with a population of 400 gives \$9,000 per year, or \$22.50 per head. Greenwood with its 600 gives \$15,000, or \$25 per head; Phoenix with 1200 gives \$18,000, while Silverton with 800 gives \$16,000 per year. In some districts the workmen have instructed the superintendents to deduct $3\frac{1}{4}$ per cent or one day's pay per month from their wages.

Rural communities, in order to make certain that they are included in this beautiful work, have overcome the difficulties attendant upon collections in sparsely settled districts by requesting councils to levy assessments whereby rural contributions might be equalized. This contribution of the council represents the various individual contributions of the constituents and is purely voluntary. The rural communities of Canada contributed in this way during 1917 the sum of \$3,000,000 to the fund.

It is next to impossible to find a community that cannot furnish more than one example of wonderful generosity on the part of someone who can scarcely afford the sacrifice. A certain mutual fire insurance company in Ontario at a general meeting of shareholders voted to the patriotic fund its entire yearly dividend of \$50,000. An old lighthouse keeper near Vancouver raised flowers and sold them to the tourists, realizing therefrom more than \$1,000 which he donated

to the fund. Gaspé fishermen, lumberjacks from the Quebec bush, cheese-makers, road-makers, all find their greatest pleasure in denying themselves in order to contribute to the fund. Nearly \$12,500 has been sent in by Indians on the reserves and even from Hercshell's Island within the Arctic Circle comes a gift of \$20 from the Eskimo Chikehagalook. These warm-hearted people make the "million a month" possible. The town of Waterloo numbers 95,000 inhabitants of whom one-half are of German birth or German descent. Up to 1917 its contribution to the fund was more than \$350,000 and its promise for 1917 was \$250,000 provided the war lasted till the end of the year.

The individual records just cited and thousands more just like them are powerful arguments for keeping the fund as it is—the free-will offering of a generous people standing back of its soldiers. It is peculiarly the people's own movement near and dear to their hearts and should not be taken over by the federal government as was once proposed.

HOW THE FUND OPERATES

A short outline showing the working of the fund will make still clearer the reason why it is so loyally supported. All contributions are deposited to the credit of the Honorary Treasurer of the National Fund in Ottawa. As soon as deposited the funds pass under the control of the National Executive. Each local branch sends to Ottawa an estimate of the amount needed for the month. The sum is promptly sent to the local branch treasurer and deposited by him as his working account. All cheques issued for relief by him during the month are drawn against this account. At the end of each month the branch treasurer makes out a disbursement sheet, on a standardized form, bearing the names of those who have received help, together with full information.

The amount paid each family is compared with that family's scheduled allowance. Careful comparisons are constantly made between groups having similar conditions. Niggardliness or over-generosity on the part of local boards are thus prevented. A splendid feature of the Ottawa office is the card index containing over 100,000 records covering every man who has enlisted for service and reported to military headquarters as having dependent relatives. Each man's record is strictly up to date. Military

camps, hospitals and discharge depots send daily reports to the fund headquarters, and enlistments, discharges, transfers, promotions, casualties, pensions and everything else concerning the military standing of the soldier is a matter of knowledge every day and entered on the card. This record is invaluable in checking up the disbursement sheets received from local branches.

On enlistment, the wife of every soldier receives from the government a separation allowance of \$20 a month, recently increased to \$25 a month. She also receives part of his assigned pay which differs according to rank. The two average \$35 a month. The beneficent work of the fund becomes apparent at this point and supplements the government allowance with a sum sufficient to overcome the difficulties of living imposed by local conditions and size of families.

In order to become eligible to the fund the applicant must furnish:

- (a) Positive proof that the soldier has enlisted for active service.
- (b) A wife must produce her marriage certificate and the ages of all children must be verified.
- (c) A mother or other dependent must furnish proof of actual dependence upon the soldier.

There must be a thorough investigation as to sources of income other than that furnished by the government and also into the mode of living and general moral standing of the applicant.

SCHEDULE OF ALLOWANCES

Having been accepted as a beneficiary the applicant begins to receive help from the date of application or in extreme cases, for one month antedating application where that has been delayed or neglected by the applicant. The monthly allowance is as follows:—

Wife with Children.—(a) For herself, \$10. (b) For one child: girl 10 to 17 years, \$7.50; boy 10 to 16 years, \$7.50; child 5 to 10 years, \$4.50; each child under 5 years, \$3; second child over 10, \$4.50; third child over 10, \$3; second and more 5 to 10, \$3.

Wife without Children.— If young and not under the necessity of maintaining a home, \$5.

Widowed Mother.—(a) Dependent on son, \$10. (b) If the government separation allowance and assigned pay are less than \$35 the rates quoted are increased; if they exceed that amount the fund allowance is decreased. Under no circumstances can the maximum rates named by the fund be increased.

Partial Dependence.—Each case of partial dependence receives individual

treatment dependent entirely on the merits of the case. The first point considered in the net value of the son to his mother previous to enlistment. When determining this the fact is kept in mind that the son's wages in 1918 would in all probability have been greater than he was receiving in the year of his enlistment. Relative wage standards at day of enlistment and at date of application to the fund must be considered. Another consideration which is always present in the calculations is the amount of the assigned pay.

Cost of living varies greatly in different provinces and the average allotment varies accordingly. In Prince Edward Island it is \$10 per month; Nova Scotia, \$12.50; New Brunswick, \$14; Quebec and Ontario, \$15 to \$16; Saskatchewan, \$21; Alberta, \$20; British Columbia, \$20. The monthly average for Canada is \$16.25. This means that the typical Canadian soldier's family consisting of wife and two children receives from all sources about \$51.25 per month. The administration of the fund is in the hands of persons who serve without remuneration and there is incurred an exceedingly small running expense. Interest on the reserve bank deposit covers all expense of administration. The management has been able to assure the contributors to the fund that of every dollar given, the soldier's family has received one hundred cents.

INTERNATIONAL IN SCOPE

While the fund exists primarily for Canada's own men no soldier's family is discriminated against. Families of reservists who lived in Canada and are fighting with the Allies on any front are allowed to benefit by the fund. Indeed, the outlay for French and Belgian families is the greatest of all because the government grant in the former case is small and in the latter entirely lacking. Now that American soldiers are overseas their families would be cared for, if necessary, exactly the same as would the Canadian soldier's family.

One of the prime objects in creating the fund was to supply the sympathetic element which is needed especially in war times. The object has been gained in a wonderfully successful way through the fact that much, indeed almost all, of the executive work of the local branches has been in the hands of warm-hearted, patriotic, women who have spared themselves in no particular but have given time, energy, affection and executive ability of the highest order to the cause they love best.

THE SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF WAR RISK INSURANCE

BY THOMAS B. LOVE,
Assistant Secretary of the Treasury.

Insurance in all its forms is the best expression in organized business terms of the great social principle of mutuality or coöperation. War risk insurance is nothing more than the extension by the government of the United States to some of the risks of war of business methods with which the people of the United States are already familiar in nearly every department of their life and ordinary daily business.

The new thing about it which is of the greatest social significance is that it is a national governmental enterprise with the authority and financial strength of the greatest and most democratic government in the world. It began on September 2, 1914, when the Bureau of War Risk Insurance in the Treasury Department was established by Congress and authorized to insure American ships and their cargoes at rates which private carriers could not afford to take because of the unknown and uncertain new risks of naval submarine warfare, and in order to maintain the commerce of a neutral nation on the high seas. Later this authority was extended by the act of June 12, 1917, to cover the insurance of masters, officers and crews of merchant vessels, and again by the act of July 11, 1918, to insure the vessels of friendly nations when such vessels are chartered or operated by the United States Shipping Board or its agent, or chartered by citizens of the United States, or the cargoes on vessels of friendly nations whether or not they are so chartered.

This business is operated by the Marine and Seamen's Division of the War Risk Insurance Bureau and has been of the greatest national service. It has demonstrated the wisdom of the government going into a business undertaking that it alone could afford to enter and one which no combination of private capital would have dared risk, at rates which have given our shipping, both as a neutral and belligerent nation, cheap, reasonable, adequate protection and thus far without costing the government of the United States a single dollar. From September 2, 1914, to the close of business on June

30, 1918, \$43,185,770 were paid in premiums, the losses paid amounted to \$28,894,848, and after allowance for all costs of administration there was a surplus in the Treasury of more than \$14,000,000. Indeed, the cost of administration for nearly four years had been only about \$130,000 and the full amount of such insurance written was \$1,244,671,238.

The greatest development of war risk insurance, however, dates from the act of October 6, 1917, which together with various subsequent amendatory acts is now officially known as the War Risk Insurance Act. It is of still greater social significance because it has introduced the principle of insurance as part of the contract of employment between the government of the United States and millions of its citizens called upon for military and naval service.

The government of the United States is now an employer on a larger basis than ever before in its history. It is the largest employer in the world, and it is not too much to say that there is no single element in all our great war task that is of more importance than wisdom and prudence and essential justice in all of the phases of the nation's employment. The government at this time is the employer of something more than two million soldiers and sailors representing our fighting forces, and with respect to the basis upon which this employment is laid I think it may fairly be said that the government is an employer on a better basis than ever before in its history.

In all of the conflicts and contending opinions since the war began, upon questions arising out of employment and incident to employment, there are some elemental facts upon which all schools of thought have agreed. An honest contract of employment, whether made by a government or a private employer, individual or corporate, and whatever the grade or character of the employment, must provide for a living wage; and it is generally agreed that a living wage means something more than the mere cost of subsistence for the worker while he is at work. It must also provide for the expenses of living for his natural dependents, and for the expenses of living of the worker and his natural dependents during the hours of the day and the days of the week when he does not work. Further, it must provide for them during those periods when he is unable to work through his physical disability, arising from disease or injury, whether occupational or otherwise, or from old age; and

it must include provisions for the support of his dependents after his death so long as the conditions of dependency may continue. These things are essential to the living of the employe. Without them life is not worth living. They are simply the fuels of service without which there can be no efficient service.

Contracts guaranteeing these things may contemplate that the employe shall be paid a fixed periodical stipend representing the cost of his ordinary living, and in addition the cost of providing for the contingencies which may arise in the event of his disability, old age or death. Such a contract may contemplate that the worker will set aside and conserve the portion of the wage representing these contingencies, so that when they arise he will have the means in hand to meet them; or it may contemplate that he will provide for them through purchasing insurance protection against them. Another means is that the worker shall receive a fixed periodical stipend, and shall be committed to a reliance upon the voluntary contribution of the employer in the event of his disability or death or old age. Yet another would contemplate that the employer will pay the employe a fixed periodical stipend somewhat less than if the employe were to carry the risks I have described, upon the condition and with the agreement that the employer himself will undertake to make certain and definite provisions as a part of the contract of the employment and as a part of the compensation of the employe, for carrying him through periods of disability and carrying his dependents in the event of his death.

This method of compensation under which our two million and more soldiers and sailors are employed by the government of the United States is nowhere better illustrated than in the basic principles of the War Risk Insurance Act which is a part of the contract of their employment. In the War Risk Insurance Act and other acts which fix the basis of employment for our fighting forces, the government says to the enlisted man:

We will pay you a certain fixed monthly compensation. We will furnish your food and clothing and all medical service. If you have a wife and children, either or both, we will require you to make a definite allotment out of your monthly pay, which shall not exceed one-half your pay, and to this allotment the government will add an equal or greater amount as an allowance and pay this allotment and allowance to your family and dependents monthly for their support. If you have no wife or child, and have other relatives dependent upon you for support, and you wish to make a voluntary allotment for their support; or, if you have

besides a wife and children other relatives dependent upon you for support, and you wish in addition to the compulsory allotment you are required to make for the support of your wife and children to make a voluntary allotment for their support in either such case, the government will supplement the voluntary allotment with an equal or greater allowance, and disburse those allotments and allowances to the dependent relatives on a monthly basis.

In this way the government agrees with the soldier to make a certain definite dependable provision for his wife and children and other dependent relatives while he is in the service.

It says also that if he becomes disabled or discharged on account of injury or disease arising in the line of duty, and not due to his own wilful misconduct, the government will pay him a certain fixed monthly compensation contingent in amount upon the number and personnel of his family, so long as his disability shall continue. If he loses his life in the line of duty and not as a result of his own wilful misconduct, the government will pay to his wife or child or dependent mother or father, all of them if he has them, if not, such as he may leave, a certain fixed monthly compensation so long as the widow or widowed mother remains a widow and the parents are dependent, and to the children until they arrive at the age of eighteen years.

In addition to these provisions, the government declares that if he desires to purchase additional protection against his own total permanent disability, and against the loss of his breadwinning ability for his dependents through his death, it will provide that he may take not less than \$1,000 or more than \$10,000 of insurance, which shall be furnished him at the ordinary peace-time rates less any loading for expense and without any addition for the war hazard, the average rate being about \$6.50 per month for a \$10,000 policy. If the soldier is totally and permanently disabled, whether in the line of duty or not, this insurance shall be payable to him in 240 equal monthly installments until his death, or in the event of his death before the total number of installments have been paid, the remainder of such installments shall be paid to his designated beneficiaries. If he dies, the total amount of insurance is paid to his designated beneficiaries in 240 equal monthly installments.

This scheme or provision for our fighting men is certainly the most liberal provision ever made by any government in the history of the world for its fighting forces in time of war. It has seemed to

me that it represents probably the soundest and wisest and most prudential form of employment ever used by any nation in time of war or in time of peace. May it not be that it will have an added value in that it will point the way to our country and to the nations of the earth for a rational and sound system of employment which will be mutually beneficial to society and to the worker for peace times as well as for war?

Although this provision for the military forces of the country has entailed the building up of the greatest insurance business in the world in a few months, there are already signs that it must be extended immediately beyond the confines of the military forces. General Pershing cabled the Secretary of War several months ago that he had with the Expeditionary Forces in France many hundred civilian employes who were subjected to extraordinary war risks, but not being part of the military forces were not eligible to benefit by the insurance features of the War Risk Insurance Act. He asked that they be included by regulation if possible, if not, by new legislation. Amendments have been proposed in Congress to meet this request.

The Russian Railway Corps is not an official body of government employes either military or civilian, but is composed of hundreds of American engineers and workmen who are doing essential war service helping the cause of the Allies and bravely meeting a great many dangers of war. They ought to have the protection of war risk insurance, and bills have been introduced in Congress to give it to them. The War, Navy and Treasury departments have all sent hundreds and thousands of civilian employes to France engaged in supplementary war work. Many of them, like the hundreds of telephone girls, working under conditions required by extra-hazardous service, and the hundreds and thousands of Red Cross workers, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. employes are all doing their part to help win the war. Many of them are making as great financial and personal sacrifices as any soldier or sailor in the fighting forces, and all of them are subject to the dangers of the submarine at sea, the aerial bomb on land, and in some cases to the more usual hazards of bullets and cannon by reason of proximity to the fighting lines. Undoubtedly Congress, in the same spirit of fairness and liberality that characterized the provision for soldiers and sailors, will in the near future extend the provisions of war risk

insurance to a considerably larger body of persons than that comprised in the strictly speaking military service.

It will be hard, however, to draw the line in all justice to include only those who are in some way subject to strictly war risks and to exclude hundreds of thousands of civil employes of the government of the United States who are doing unusual tasks in Washington and in every part of the country at home in the spirit of war service, if not liable to special war risks. I have in mind particularly the railway employes of the United States, who in some measure when they enter their employment, like the soldier, lose their "insurability" because of the extra-hazardous character of their occupation. They are now a part, for the time being at least, of Uncle Sam's great and growing civilian army engaged in national service. But it is not possible to draw the line even here at the point of the extra-hazardous character of the employment. Social justice demands and a wise and patriotic Congress will undoubtedly eventually recognize, that a just contract of employment between the government of the United States and everyone of its employes must include some provision for such protection as it has already provided for our soldiers and sailors in the War Risk Insurance Act.

A descriptive account of the detailed provisions of the War Risk Insurance Act, setting forth the three important war tasks, namely, provision for allotments and family allowances, compensation and indemnity for injury, and insurance against death or total and permanent disability, is given elsewhere in this volume, likewise some account of the enormous task in establishing the Bureau of War Risk Insurance and all the administrative problems which have confronted the government during the first year of its operation. I have, therefore, confined myself to pointing out merely the larger social aspects of the policies underlying this legislation and administration.

PURPOSE AND SCOPE OF WAR RISK INSURANCE

BY SAMUEL McCUNE LINDSAY,

Professor of Social Legislation, Columbia University.

The War Risk Insurance Act is now the official designation of that body of law which began with the establishment of a Bureau of War Risk Insurance in the Treasury Department by the Act of Congress of September 2, 1914. The Bureau's powers and duties have been greatly expanded and modified by numerous amendments and subsequent enactments. It may be well to trace briefly at the outset the various steps in the history of this momentous legislation which constitutes so important a chapter of our special war legislation.

The act of September 2, 1914, passed within a little over a month after the outbreak of the European war and while we were still a neutral nation, explained its purpose in a preamble which said:

Whereas the foreign commerce of the United States is now greatly impeded and endangered through the absence of adequate facilities for the insurance of American vessels and their cargoes against the risks of war; and whereas it is deemed necessary and expedient that the United States shall temporarily provide for the export shipping trade of the United States adequate facilities for the insurance of its commerce against the risks of war; therefore be it enacted, etc.

Then followed the authority granted to the Secretary of the Treasury, through the Bureau of War Risk Insurance, to issue insurance on American vessels and their cargoes, and the appropriation of funds for these purposes. It was intended as a temporary measure and the President was authorized to suspend the operations of the act whenever in his judgment the necessity for further war insurance by the United States ceased to exist; and in any event such suspension was to take place within two years after the passage of the act without, however, affecting outstanding insurance or claims pending at the time. This provision for suspension of what is now the Division of Marine and Seamen's Insurance has been extended by subsequent acts until by the amendment of July 11, 1918, it is required to take place when the President so directs, but in any event within six months after the end of the war, except that "for the purpose of the final adjustment of any such outstanding insurance or claims, the Division of Marine and Seamen's Insurance

may, in the discretion of the President, be continued in existence for a period not exceeding three years after such suspension." It would seem, therefore, that as far as marine and seamen's insurance is concerned Congress has consistently declared its intention to provide government insurance merely as a temporary war measure.

INSURANCE ACTS OF CONGRESS

Congress extended the scope of marine insurance by the Act of June 12, 1917, which directed the bureau subject to the general direction of the Secretary of the Treasury to make "provisions for the insurance by the United States of masters, officers and crews of American merchant vessels against loss of life or personal injury by the risks of war, and for compensation during detention following capture by enemies of the United States whenever it shall appear to the Secretary that in any trade the need for such insurance exists."

This act not only authorized the bureau to make provision for insurance and compensation for injury, death and detention following capture by enemies for officers and crews of American merchant vessels, but it made such insurance and compensation compulsory by providing that in the event of failure of the owner of any vessel to effect the insurance of master, officer and crew prior to sailing, in accordance with the plan it outlined, the Secretary of the Treasury was authorized to effect it with the bureau at the expense of the owner. The expense of the premium with interest and a penalty not to exceed \$1,000, in addition, with interest and costs was made a lien on the vessel.

The compensation provided by this amendatory act for seamen is as follows:

In case of death or permanent disability which prevents the person injured from performing any and every kind of duty pertaining to his occupation, or the loss of both hands, both arms, both feet, both legs, or both eyes, or any two thereof An amount equivalent to one year's earnings or to twelve times the monthly earnings of the insured, as fixed in the articles for the voyage but in no case more than \$5,000, or less than \$1,500.

A percentage of this sum is allowed for the loss of one hand (50), one arm (65), one foot (50), one leg (65), one eye (45), total loss of hearing (50) and the bureau may include in its policy specified percentages for other losses or disabilities.

In case of detention by an enemy of the United States, following capture, payment is made during the continuance of such detention at the same rate as the earnings immediately preceding such detention, but the aggregate payments under all these provisions may not exceed one year's earnings as above determined. Payments are made only to the master, officer or member of the crew except, in case of loss of life, to his estate for distribution to his family free from liability of debt, and in case of capture, to his dependents if such have been designated by him.

Another extension of the scope of marine and seamen's insurance was effected by an amendatory act of July 11, 1918, whereby "When it appears to the Secretary of the Treasury, that vessels of foreign friendly flags, or their masters, officers, or crews, or shippers, or importers in such vessels, are unable in any trade to secure adequate war risk insurance on reasonable terms," the bureau is "authorized to make provisions for the insurance by the United States of (1) such vessels of foreign friendly flags, their freight and passage moneys, and personal effects of the masters, officers, and crews thereof against the risks of war when such vessels are chartered or operated by the United States Shipping Board or its agent, or chartered by any person a citizen of the United States, and (2) the cargoes to be shipped in such vessels of foreign friendly flags, whether or not they are so chartered." The bureau may also, at the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury, issue insurance in the above circumstances to protect masters, officers, and crew against loss of life or personal injury and to include compensation during detention following capture.

The business success of marine and seamen's insurance which has not cost the government thus far a dollar, and the extent of the benefits and protection it has given to our shipping are referred to elsewhere in this volume.¹

The second stage in the development of war risk insurance began with the amendatory act of October 6, 1917, which was in reality three great legislative proposals in one. Any one of the three features of this act was destined to relegate to relative insignificance the provisions for marine and seamen's insurance and the previous work of the Bureau of War Risk Insurance. This act sought to apply the principles of mutuality, governmental coöpera-

¹ See articles by Assistant Secretary Thos. B. Love and Lt. Col. S. H. Wolfe.

tion and insurance to lighten the burdens of war for our soldiers and sailors, their families and dependents. The act was drafted after preliminary studies had been made of Canadian and European experience by Lt. Col. (then Captain) S. Herbert Wolfe and others for the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor; after numerous conferences with experts in various fields including representatives of commercial life insurance interests; and after a careful study of many of these reports and of the whole problem by the Committee on Labor of the Council of National Defense, whose representative, Judge Julian W. Mack, rendered the greatest service of all not only in drafting but in piloting the bill through its legislative history. It had the intelligent personal and active support of Secretary McAdoo and the unqualified endorsement of the President.

Before describing the three great governmental services it established for our fighting forces, we may complete the legislative history by stating that it has been amended by two joint resolutions, one² extending the period for application for insurance from men in the active war service as to whom the time for making application would expire before April 12, 1918; and the other³ making provision for insurance to be taken out by third parties (within the permitted class of beneficiaries) for uninsured persons taken prisoner prior to April 12, 1918.

The act establishing the bureau as amended October 6, 1917, has also been amended in important particulars by two subsequent acts, the detailed effects of which will be taken into account in our subsequent description of the provisions for soldiers and sailors of the War Risk Insurance Act. The act of May 20, 1918, regulated the activities of claim agents and attorneys who solicited business in the adjustment of claims of beneficiaries under the War Risk Insurance Act, fixing the maximum charges for such services at \$3.00 per case if any such services are necessary or to be allowed one in most cases, and providing that the benefits to the insured should be protected in every way possible from diminution by the costs of unnecessary legal services.

The second act was that of June 25, 1918, which represented the administrative changes which the experience of the bureau in the first six months operation of the Division of Military and Naval

² Pub. Res. No. 22—65th Cong., Feb. 12, 1918.

³ Pub. Res. No. 27—65th Cong., Apr. 2, 1918.

Insurance had shown to be desirable. It simplified considerably the records of the bureau and diminished the delay in payments of family allowances (due to some 200,000 changes per month, owing largely to changes in rate of pay), by providing for a flat allotment of \$15 for Class A dependents or Class B dependents alone, or \$20 for both as a condition for the granting of a family allowance, instead of a varying amount equal to the allowance but not less than these sums in the cases mentioned, nor more than half the man's pay. Other changes likewise were made in the direction of greater liberality on the part of the government, and some of them were made retroactive by this act and will be noted in the description of the act of October 6, 1917, which follows.

Insurance benefits in the strict sense are only part of the benefits provided for soldiers and sailors and intended to safeguard the welfare and morale of the army and navy by the act of October 6, 1917, which created the Military and Naval Division of the Bureau of War Risk Insurance. It provides for three new, effective and far-reaching services of the federal government, namely: (1) Allotment of pay and family allowance; (2) compensation and indemnity for death or disability; (3) insurance against death or total and permanent disability.⁴

I. ALLOTMENTS OF PAY (COMPULSORY AND VOLUNTARY) AND FAMILY ALLOWANCES

Congress had already prior to October, 1917, laid the right foundation for this part of the War Risk Insurance Law by raising the pay of the enlisted men in the army and navy, making the minimum pay for nearly all in the service \$30 a month, or double what it was before in most cases, and higher than that of any other army in the world. This was a just measure to protect the highest standards of living in any country at a time when so many citizens were to be called upon to forsake their usual peaceful occupations. But this was not enough to equalize the sacrifices which all citizens must make in time of war. No rate of pay for the army and navy

⁴ In the description of these three services liberal use has been made of the descriptive accounts given by the author in articles published in the *Review of Reviews* for October, 1917, and April, 1918, and in a paper read before the General Meeting of the American Philosophical Society, April 20, 1918 and published in its *Transactions*.

could be made high enough to do that. So Congress proceeded to supplement the regular pay upon the theory that since the call to arms does not annul the moral and legal obligations of every man to support his family and those who have a blood-tie claim upon his earnings, it is the plain duty of the whole country which he serves to aid him financially to do this without undue lowering of his standard of living, and without requiring a disproportionate sacrifice on the part of his dependents.

This is sound doctrine, however, only when the enlisted man first does his part and contributes from his own resources all he can reasonably spare. Therefore we begin with the allotment which must precede a request for an allowance. Allotments and family allowances are not provided for commissioned officers or for members of the army or navy nurse corps (female). The allotment is compulsory for every enlisted man who has a wife, or child under 18 years of age or of any age if the child is insane or permanently helpless, or a divorced wife to whom alimony has been decreed by a court, and who has not remarried. These persons constitute what is known as "Class A" dependents. A common-law wife is entitled to the same consideration as a legal wife and the claims of a legal wife and of all children take precedence of those of a divorced wife. Every enlisted man is required to file with the War Risk Bureau a statement, for which an allotment and allowance blank is furnished, showing whether or not he has any dependents, and if so how many, and what are their blood or marriage relationships to him.

More than half of the men in the army and navy claim that they have no dependents for whom allotment of pay is compulsory or for whom they wish to make a voluntary allotment. Some of these no doubt will be found to have a wife or child for whom they seek to evade responsibility, and such wife or child or someone on their behalf should make application direct to the bureau if they do not receive the allotment and the man will be brought to account. If an allotment is made for any beneficiary and through inadvertence or otherwise no request has been made for a family allowance, the wife, child or beneficiary, or someone on their behalf, should apply to this bureau for the family allowance. Some will later want to make voluntary allotments for Class B dependents when perhaps they find it more convenient to do so. Class B

dependents for whom the allotment is voluntary include parents, brothers, sisters and grandchildren. Parents include fathers and mothers through adoption as well as natural parents, and grandparents and step-parents either of the person in the service or of the spouse. Brothers and sisters include those of the half blood and step-brothers and step-sisters and brothers and sisters through adoption. Even if Class B dependents are in want, an enlisted man is not compelled to make an allotment for their support, but he must do so before the government will pay any family allowance to them.

The allowance in all cases both for Class A and Class B dependents is granted only when applied for, after the required allotment of pay has been made. The monthly compulsory allotment is \$15 for class A dependents where such exist whether a family allowance is applied for or not.

Where a man has Class A dependents, but no Class B dependents and has allotted \$15 per month, the government grants on application a family allowance according to the following schedule: For a wife but no child, \$15; a wife and one child, \$25; a wife and two children, \$32.50, with \$5 per month additional for each additional child up to a total of \$50, which is the maximum government allowance to the dependents (Classes A and B) of any one man under all circumstances; no wife but one child, \$5; two children, \$12.50; three children, \$20; four children, \$30, and \$5 for each additional child. These allowances to Class A dependents are made without reference to dependency or need except that they may be waived by a wife who gives evidence of sufficient means for her own support, but may not be waived by a child, and a man may be exempted in certain exceptional circumstances from making a compulsory allotment.

When a man in the service has Class A dependents for whom he is making an allotment and in addition has Class B dependents for whom he wants an allowance he must make an additional allotment of \$5. Class B dependents receive allowances as follows: One parent, \$10; two, \$20; each grandchild, brother or sister, or additional parent, \$5, provided the total family allowance for Classes A and B dependents for one person does not exceed \$50 per month.

As there are no compulsory allotments for a woman in the service, her dependents are always Class B dependents. For Class

B dependents where there are no Class A dependents men and women alike in the service must allot, if they want allowances for their Class B dependents, \$15 per month. In the case of a woman, the family allowances for a husband and children are the same as in the case of a man for a wife and children except that dependency must be proven to exist, as in the case of Class B dependents.

Class B allowances are subject to two conditions: (1) The person receiving the allowance must need it and be dependent in whole or in part for support upon the person making the allotment. They need not be wholly dependent. They may have earnings of their own or also other sources of support. (2) The total of the allotment and the allowance paid to the dependents must not exceed the amount of the habitual contribution from the man to the dependents in all cases where dependency existed prior to enlistment or prior to October 6, 1917. Otherwise the government allowance will be proportionately reduced.

The bureau, in its regulations made under the authority of the Secretary of the Treasury, has sought to interpret this provision of the law in a broad and sympathetic way. The regulation which defines dependency says:

For the purposes of the War Risk Insurance Act, a person is dependent in whole or in part, upon another, when he is compelled to rely, and the relations between the parties are such that he has a right to rely in whole or in part on the other for his support.

Also, if a Class B dependent, for whom a family allowance is claimed, becomes dependent in whole or in part on the enlisted man, subsequent to both enlistment and October 6, 1917, the limitation as to habitual contributions is regarded as not applicable, and the family allowance is paid without regard to it.

Family allowances are payable for one month after a man is discharged from the service, but are not provided for more than one year after the termination of the war.

The conditions of dependency and habitual contribution make investigation necessary to prevent fraud, and adjustment to the changing conditions affecting dependents, such as births and deaths in the family, children reaching the age of eighteen, or contracting marriage before that age, and economic conditions affecting the family income, of the greatest complexity and difficulty in maintaining the necessary records in the War Risk Bureau in order that awards may be made promptly and allowances paid accurately each month.

as they become due. Severe penalties are provided for intentional fraud. Anyone knowingly making a false statement of a material fact in connection with claims under the act is guilty of perjury and will be punished by a fine up to \$5,000, or by imprisonment up to two years, or both. A beneficiary, whose right to payments under the act ceases, and who fraudulently accepts such payments thereafter, will be punished by a fine up to \$2,000, or by imprisonment up to one year, or both.

II. COMPENSATION FOR DEATH OR DISABILITY.

The application of the principles of mutuality and insurance to the risk of death or disability resulting from personal injury suffered or disease contracted in the line of duty, and not due to wilful misconduct on the part of the injured person, is not new. It has been successfully tried out on a large scale through the admirable workings of the national and state workmen's compensation laws now operative for the civilian employes of the federal government and for the industrial workers of thirty-six states of the American Union. These laws have largely displaced or superceded the old employers' liability remedies for industrial accidents. They have proven themselves to be increasingly satisfactory to employers and employes alike. They operate also to place on each industry the cost of the financial burden of its unavoidable industrial accidents as far as that burden can be translated into dollars and cents. They operate to distribute among the consumers of the goods produced the cost of industrial accidents incurred in their production to the extent of providing for the payment of a sum proportionate to the loss of earning power and a fair recompense for the suffering that an industrial accident causes the individual workman and his family. They also operate to encourage industry to adopt and develop every possible safety device for the elimination of preventable accidents.

The analogy of this industrial experience with compensation remedies to the problem of caring for the hazards of war is plain. In the case of our military and naval forces the industry is an "extra hazardous" one, the payments for compensation must be liberal and the cost will be heavy. The government of the United States is the employer and the nation or the people of the United States are the consumers or those for whom the operations of war are

carried on. The government therefore should bear the whole cost of compensation for death or disability for officers as well as for enlisted men, and for members of the nurse corps (female), and distribute the burden through taxation. It does not require any contribution from the beneficiaries as it does in the case of allotments of pay upon which family allowances are based or in the case of premiums covering the peace rates for insurance. The soldier or sailor does his part when he risks his life and bears the unavoidable personal suffering from injury or disease incurred in the service of his country. Compensation is a payment in addition to regular pay, family allowances and insurance benefits, and serves to equalize the burdens and risks of military service which inevitably are unequally distributed between those called upon to serve in front line trenches as compared with those serving in no less necessary operations behind the lines.

This second great service of the War Risk Insurance Law, which makes provision for compensation for death and disability, is necessarily a complicated and technical one and I cannot attempt here to describe it fully, but only in its general outlines. It is more liberal and far more just than any pension law that has ever been passed or now exists, and it should make any supplementary pension legislation for those engaged in this war wholly unnecessary. While it will cost the government huge sums of money depending upon the number of men engaged in this war, the length of the war and the severity of our casualties, it will doubtless cost less, be far more just and equitable in its benefits, and give more aid and comfort where it is needed than any general pension scheme could possibly provide.

Compensation for death or disability is provided for all members of the United States military and naval forces, including not only enlisted men but also commissioned officers and members of the army and navy nurse corps (female). The only person entitled to receive compensation for disability is the man himself. In the case of his death, the widow, child, dependent mother and dependent father receive the benefits provided. Compensation is not paid automatically, but must be applied for on blank forms furnished by the Bureau of War Risk Insurance. It varies in amounts from \$30 to \$100 a month paid to the disabled man, and from \$20 to \$75 a month paid to his widow, child, dependent mother or dependent father.

Unlike industrial compensation the amount does not vary in proportion to the wage or previous income of the disabled person or of the deceased. It is based on a new principle, namely that of the family need, on the theory that under the conscription law the family is conscripted when the bread winner is taken away. Therefore, the amount paid, if the man is disabled in the line of duty, varies according to the size of his family and changes from month to month or year to year as the family status changes. If a man is a bachelor and is totally disabled, he gets \$30 a month; if he has a wife but no child living, \$45 a month; a wife and one child \$55; a wife and two children \$65; a wife and three or more children \$75; no wife but one child living \$40, with \$10 for each additional child up to two; a mother or father, either or both dependent upon him for support in addition to the above amounts, \$10 for each. He is entitled, in addition, to free medical, surgical and hospital service and supplies, including artificial limbs, etc., as the Director of the War Risk Bureau may determine to be useful and reasonably necessary: and for certain claims of disability such as the loss of both feet, or hands, or both eyes, he gets, in lieu of all other compensation, the flat sum of \$100 a month. Partial disability is pro-rated at a percentage of the compensation for total disability equal to the degree of the reduction in earning capacity resulting from the disability.

In case of death resulting from injury in the line of duty, the monthly compensation paid is as follows: For the widow alone, \$25; for the widow and one child \$35; for the widow and two children \$42.50 with \$5 for each additional child up to two; if there be no widow then for one child \$20; for two children \$30; for three children \$40 with \$5 for each additional child up to two; for a dependent mother or dependent father \$20, or both \$30, except that the amount paid to a dependent mother or dependent father or both when added to the total amount payable to the wife and children shall not exceed \$75. Compensation is payable for the death of but one child. No compensation is paid to a dependent mother on account of a child if she is already in receipt of compensation on account of the death of her husband.

Compensation is further limited by the following considerations. None is paid if the injury or disease was caused by the man's own wilful misconduct. None is paid for death or disability occurring

later than one year after the man leaves the service, unless a medical examination at the time of his resignation or discharge or within one year thereafter proves that the man was then suffering from an injury or disease likely to cause death or disability later. None is paid for death inflicted as punishment for crime or military offence unless inflicted by the enemy. None is paid unless the claim is filed within five years after the death was recorded in the department in which the man was serving at the time of his death, or in case of death after discharge or resignation from service, within five years after death. None is paid for disability unless the claim is filed within five years after discharge or resignation from the service or within five years after the beginning of disability occurring after leaving the service. None is paid for any period more than two years prior to the date of claim. None is paid during the period in which the man is reported as missing, if during that time his pay and family allowance go on: a man is not considered dead until reported so by the department under which he is serving. None is paid to those receiving service or retirement pay.

Dishonorable discharge terminates the right to the compensation. Compensation is not assignable and is exempt from attachment execution and from all taxation, and the law providing for gratuity of payments for death in the service and all existing pension laws does not apply to persons in the active service at the time of the passage of this act, or to those entering into the active service after, or to their widows, children or dependents, except in so far as rights under such laws shall have heretofore accrued. In addition to the benefits mentioned there is provision for the payment by the United States of burial expenses not to exceed \$100. The compensation to a widow or widowed mother ceases upon her remarriage, and to a child when it reaches the age of 18 years or marries, unless the child be incapable because of insanity, idiocy, or being otherwise permanently helpless, in which case it continues during such incapacity.

In the interpretation of the compensation provision, the Bureau of War Risk Insurance has endeavored to be as liberal as the spirit of the law permits. An illustration of this is found in the definition by regulation of the term "total disability," which is defined as "an impairment of the mind or body which renders it impossible for the disabled person to follow a gainful occupation," and again in

the regulation which says that "total disability is deemed to be permanent whenever it is founded upon conditions which render it reasonably certain that it will continue throughout the life of the person suffering from it."

In addition to providing compensation for disability and death, the government promises in this act to do everything in its power to restore a man who has been injured by accident or diseases incurred in the line of duty to the fullest possible physical and economic power. The people of the United States do not want this war to produce a large crop of "corner loafers," that is, men who will come back injured more or less seriously by their war experience, and without ambition, to rely upon what the government will do for them and consider that it owes them a living. They will be far happier if they can be restored in part, if not in whole, to their previous earning ability and have found for them some new occupation which they can successfully pursue even though maimed and impaired in physical powers. Courses of education and rehabilitation will be provided by the United States.

Already rehabilitation work and vocational training have been begun by the Surgeon General of the Army and by the Surgeon General of the Navy, who make provision for bedside instruction and training during convalescence until the men are discharged from the service. The Vocational Rehabilitation Act of June 27, 1918, makes provisions whereby the Federal Board for Vocational Education is authorized and directed to furnish, where vocational rehabilitation is feasible, such courses as it may prescribe, to every person who is disabled under circumstances entitling him after discharge from the military or naval forces of the United States to compensation under the War Risk Insurance Act. While taking such courses the injured person receives monthly compensation equal to the amount of his monthly pay for the last month of his active service, or equal to the amount of his compensation under the War Risk Insurance Act, whichever amount is the greater: and in the case of an enlisted man, his family receives compulsory allotment and family allowance in the same way as provided for enlisted men in active service. It also authorizes the bureau to withhold the payment of compensation during the period of any wilful failure to follow any prescribed course of rehabilitation or to submit to medical examination whenever required to do so, or to enlist in any

service established for the purpose of rehabilitation, re-education or vocational training. The board may also pay additional expenses where necessary to enable injured men to follow successfully its prescribed courses of rehabilitation.

III. INSURANCE AGAINST DEATH AND PERMANENT AND TOTAL DISABILITY AS ADDED PROTECTION

The third great national service provided for the military and naval forces by the War Risk Insurance Bureau is intended to copper rivet the protection afforded by the other two—allotments and family allowances, and compensation and indemnity. It is what is generally known as annual, renewable, term insurance with premiums paid monthly. It is voluntary but may be taken by officers, enlisted men, and members of the army or navy nurse corps (female) in amounts of not less than \$1,000, in multiples of \$500 up to a maximum of \$10,000. Its chief purpose is to restore the insurability which a man in prime physical condition who passes the medical tests required for active military or naval service, either loses or finds impaired when he enters such service. This lost or impaired insurability is restored by giving him the opportunity to buy insurance at peace rate cost renewable from year to year, and convertible into any of the ordinary forms of insurance within five years after the end of the war, without physical examination.

The premium rates are based upon the American Experience Table of Mortality and interest at 3½ per cent per annum, and represent the actual cost of the insurance, not including administrative expenses which the government bears, or any loading for solicitor's commissions, advertising, inspection or medical examinations. The extra hazard of the war risk is created by the government's call to service and it properly bears that cost also.

Therefore the man gets insurance in an extra hazardous occupation at less cost than the same form of insurance would cost him in peace times in any commercial insurance organization. He has 120 days after enlistment or entering the service in which to elect to take the insurance and to decide upon the amount he wants. After that time he may drop any part of his insurance he does not want to carry but may not increase his policy. The insurance is in force immediately the signed application is mailed or delivered and even a formal application is not necessary, as the bureau recog-

nizes any written application which sufficiently identifies the applicant and specifies the amount desired. The acceptance is of course conditioned upon the man passing his physical examination and being admitted to the active service if that is not already the case.

Premiums may be and usually are paid automatically by monthly allotment of pay. The rates during the war run from 63 cents per month per thousand dollars of insurance at the age of fifteen to \$3.35 at the age of sixty-five, increasing annually upon the anniversary of the policy to the age rate for the next age year. The insurance will run as long as the premiums are paid whether the man leaves the service or not, provided it is converted into permanent forms of insurance within five years after the close of the war, unless it is terminated by the discharge or dismissal of any person from the military or naval forces on the ground that he is an enemy alien, conscientious objector, or a deserter, or as guilty of mutiny, treason, spying, or any offense involving moral turpitude, or wilful and persistent misconduct.

The amount of the policy, in the event of death or total and permanent disability, is payable in 240 monthly instalments, except that if the insured is permanently and totally disabled and lives longer than 240 months, payments continue at that rate as long as he lives and is so disabled; and in the event of his death before 240 payments have been made the remaining monthly instalments go to his beneficiary.

In the event of death before any or all of the 240 payments have been made, the insurance is payable likewise in monthly instalments to any beneficiary designated by the insured within a limited class consisting of a spouse, child, grandchild, parent, brother or sister as defined above in the case of allotments, allowances and compensation. If no beneficiary within the permitted class is designated by the insured or if the designated one does not survive the insured, the payments go to such persons within the permitted class of beneficiaries as would be entitled, under the laws of the state of the residence of the insured, to his personal property in case of intestacy. If no such person survive the insured, then there shall be paid to the estate of the insured an amount equal to the reserve value, if any, of the insurance at the time of his death, calculated on the basis of the American Experience Table of Mor-

tality, and 3½ per centum interest in full of all obligations under the contract of insurance.

There are no other provisions for lump sum payments. The insurance payments are further protected, however, by the provision, which applies also to payments for allotments and family allowances and compensations, that they are not assignable, nor subject to the claims of creditors of any person to whom an award is made, except claims of the United States against the person on whose account the allotments and family allowances, compensation, or insurance is payable.

The act of October 6, 1917, contained a very wise provision for automatic insurance whereby all men in the active service on or after April 6, 1917, the date when war was declared, who during the 120 day period immediately following the date of publication of the terms of the contract of insurance (Oct. 15, 1917), were totally and permanently disabled or died without having applied for insurance, were to be deemed to have applied for and to have been granted insurance payable to such person during his life in monthly instalments of \$25 each. This was about the equivalent of \$4,500 of insurance. In the event of death, however, the payments of the balance of 240 such payments to beneficiaries were restricted to a widow remaining unmarried, a child, or a widowed mother. This restriction was amended June 25, 1918, so that the beneficiary might be a widow during her widowhood, or if there is no widow surviving, then to the child or children of the insured, or if there is no child surviving him, then to his mother, or if there is no mother surviving him, then to his father, if and while they survive him. This provision was made retroactive and the bureau was directed to revise all awards of automatic insurance in accordance with its terms on July 1, 1918.

The appreciation on the part of the men and women in the military and naval forces of the benefits of this voluntary insurance is abundantly shown by the fact that over twenty-three billion dollars of insurance have been applied for and over 95 per cent of the entire army and navy is covered by it in amounts averaging nearly 85 per cent per person of the maximum allowed.

The voluntary insurance feature of the War Risk Insurance Act, superadded to the compensation and allotments and allowances, constitutes one logical and far-reaching scheme to promote

and protect the welfare and morale of our fighting forces whether abroad or at home. It is a governmental undertaking of the greatest magnitude and importance, and one in which every American may take just pride. Almost automatic in its operation, it is a self-respecting, well-balanced and democratic expression of a new sense of social solidarity and unity of national purpose.

EIGHT MONTHS OF WAR RISK INSURANCE WORK

BY LIEUT.-COL. S. H. WOLFE,¹

Quartermaster Corps, United States Army

Shortly after the United States entered the war it was felt that a more detailed knowledge was desired of relief measures required by modern war conditions. Canada was visited, and the results of my investigation have been published as Bulletin No. 10, Miscellaneous Series, Children's Bureau, Department of Labor. The realization of the necessity for doing away with haphazard methods and of substituting therefor a scientific program of government relief led the Secretary of War to direct me to prepare a system of relief for the dependents of enlisted men in our army—a question which was then being considered by the members of the cabinet forming the Council of National Defense, and by the Secretary of the Treasury.

The various steps leading to the preparation of the War Risk Insurance Act are matters of record and it is unnecessary to refer to them at length. The act was enacted by Congress, was approved October 6, 1917, and became effective November 1. In a little over three weeks, therefore, the bureau was called upon to prepare for the handling of a proposition requiring administrative work of a greater magnitude than any bureau of any government had ever been called upon to face in the same length of time. In the brief space of three weeks it became necessary to obtain quarters, to employ and educate a force of clerks, to purchase office furniture, equipment and supplies, to prepare copy for the printer and secure

¹ For several months after his return from France, Lieut.-Col. Wolfe was detailed to the Bureau of War Risk Insurance by the Secretary of War.

the printing and distribution of millions of application forms, bulletins and explanatory literature, to establish the necessary rules and regulations for the bureau, and to prepare instructions for the information and guidance of army and navy officers who would be called upon at their various posts to explain the provisions of the act to the men serving under them. Precedents did not exist, and it was impossible to foresee how much floor space or how many clerks would be required properly to handle the situation.

Even a cursory examination of the act will enable the reader to note that the government activities have moved along two distinct avenues which for want of better terms I shall designate as remuneration and service. The act was created with the idea that no man should become entitled to any pecuniary reward merely for injuries incurred in the service of his country, but on the other hand it was felt that as the government had taken men from society in presumably a perfect physical condition, a moral obligation rested upon the government to either return the soldier in the same good condition or to compensate him for the damage inflicted as far as it lay within its power.

To make the distinction between reward and compensation more clear, two cases may be assumed: first, that of the soldier who had been grievously wounded, had suffered great physical and mental anguish but as a result of skillful surgical treatment and careful nursing was finally discharged in perfect physical condition; the second soldier had been injured in such a way as to cause but little suffering, with the result, however, that his earning power was materially decreased—say 50 per cent. The first will receive no bonus or payment for the sacrifice he made but the fact that the second was no longer able to occupy the same useful position in society as he had formerly occupied would entitle him to compensation based not only upon the extent of his disability but also upon the family needs, *i.e.*, if he had a wife and children, the amount to which he would be entitled would be larger than if he were a single man, and within limits, the amount of the increase would depend upon the number of his dependents.

The second field of activity is illustrated by the service which is rendered to the soldier by the bureau furnishing information to and acting for him with respect to any contracts of insurance which he may have either with the government or with private companies.

If, for example, he will deposit with the bureau the premiums called for by his insurance contracts with private corporations, the bureau will see that payments are made upon the due dates and that the insurance protection does not lapse. Other services are rendered by the Soldiers' and Sailors' Civil Relief Act, which is operated by the bureau and to which a more extended reference will be made later.

An attempt, however, to draw too sharp a distinction between the two fields of activity, remuneration and service, must inevitably fail, as certain of the bureau's activities are a combination of the two: for example, the payment of allotment and allowance based upon the existence and needs of dependents is a function which combines both financial relief and service in the distribution of part of the soldier's pay among those who might otherwise fail to receive suitable support.

Before proceeding to the presentation of the statistics showing the accomplishment of the bureau during its brief existence, it may not be amiss to point out the theory underlying some of the departments created by the act, and in doing so, emphasis must be laid again upon the basic principle stated before, namely, that the government aims to mend any damage which it has inflicted as a result of calling a citizen from his usual occupation to serve with the colors. This principle is well illustrated in that portion of the act relating to insurance, for, after providing for the payment of definite amounts in the event of death or the injury of the soldier, the government realized that there still remained a damage which it had inflicted, but which it had not repaired. By calling men into active service, it destroyed their "normal insurability." It may be stated safely that the government did not start out with the idea of including a system of insurance as part of its war relief program, but the action of private insurance companies in requiring new insureds to pay additional war premiums—in some cases prohibitive—when serving out of this country, brought to the government a full realization of the fact that the measure of the damage which it had inflicted upon the members of its fighting forces was shown by this additional premium. No reliable statistics existed for expressing the war risk in dollars and cents and the only logical course open to the government, therefore, was to offer to its fighting forces the privilege of protecting themselves and their families with

insurance which would be sold to them at normal peace rates with no margin for expenses or profits.

Lest the casual reader may construe these statements as criticisms of or reflections on the private insurer, it should be noted that in most of the cases, the companies have acted with commendable liberality, having charged no additional premiums to their policy-holders who took out their contracts before the declaration of war, and in only a few cases has it come to the attention of the bureau that restrictions have been insisted upon which seem unusually harsh. For obvious reasons, no private company could carry out a program practicable for the government and the plan very properly placed the cost of this additional war hazard where it belonged—among the general expenses of the war, distributed in the form of taxation over the entire population and falling, therefore, with no undue severity upon any particular individual or group.

The activities of the bureau may be divided into the following broad general divisions: Allotments and Allowance, Compensation for Death, Compensation for Disability, Insurance, Reeducation, Civil Relief Measures.

Allotments and Allowances. The theory of this section of the act may be briefly stated as follows: A man when entering service is thereby prevented from following his usual occupation and his dependents, therefore, would be deprived of the necessary funds for living expenses, unless some aid were received from the government, for in most cases the pay of a soldier is not sufficiently large to equal his previous earnings necessary for the support of his family. Dependents are divided into two classes: Class "A," consisting of a wife and child, or children, and Class "B," a parent, brother or sister, in respect of whom the soldier has been making an habitual monthly contribution. The government, however, will not contribute an allowance for the benefit of the dependents, unless the soldier himself contributes part of his pay; in respect of Class "A" this contribution or allotment is compulsory, while in respect of Class "B" the action upon his part is purely voluntary. It is unnecessary to recite the regulations which fix the amount of the allotment and of the allowance, the object of the foregoing statement being merely to furnish the groundwork for a proper understanding of some of the problems which have arisen in connection with the administration of this phase of the work.

On July 1, 1918, there were 2,532,481 statements or applications on file in the bureau. These are all called "applications," but sometimes that term is a misnomer, for in 1,496,060 of these cases the enlisted man (this designation throughout this article including enlisted men and women of all branches of the armed forces of the United States), has declared that he has no wife, child, or other dependent, and, therefore, makes no application for a family allowance. Of course, all of the cases just referred to are not correct statements of facts as the daily experience of the bureau shows, for either through failure to properly understand the blank, or through confusion, many enlisted men fail to report the existence of dependents.

In other cases, the fact that dependents exist has been deliberately hidden, the soldier in this way hoping to escape the necessity of having part of his pay withheld. When a wife writes to the bureau and claims an allowance on account of a soldier whose application cannot be found or who has filed one which indicates that he is a single man, she is asked to file an application, a certified copy of her marriage certificate, and statements from reputable witnesses who know of her marital state and who are prepared to make affidavit to the fact that she has not been divorced. The Adjutant General of the Army is then communicated with and if her husband is in the service, the payment of the allotment and allowance is made to her and the commanding officer of the soldier is apprised of the facts in order that the necessary allotment may be withheld from the enlisted man's pay each month. In some cases, the soldier states that he should not be compelled to contribute to his wife's support, a variety of reasons being advanced, such as desertion or infidelity. In these cases, he is given an opportunity to formulate charges in proper form and to furnish the names of witnesses; the papers then go to the Exemption Division under the direction of the general counsel of the bureau and a notice is sent to the wife with the request that she file an answer to her husband's charges. The case is then judiciously considered and the exemption claim allowed or disallowed. It is interesting to note that in the eight months just past, 25,547 claims for exemption were filed, of which 9,562 were granted in full, 1,825 granted as to wife but denied as to children, and 6,688 were denied, the balance being in process of investigation July 1.

One of the things which surprises the investigator is the duplication of names and the necessity for care in communicating with the proper parties. A large number of names which ordinarily are considered unusual are duplicated in the records of the bureau, and when one enters the field of usual names, he becomes absolutely lost in the maze: For example, there are 123 "John J. O'Brien" in the index files and 105 "John H. Smith." As many of the letters received by the bureau fail to give the organization of the soldiers, it is manifestly impossible to identify them, and correspondence—that bugbear of an administrative bureau—must follow. At the present time the army is installing a serial number system, whereby each soldier will have a number assigned to him, and this will materially aid in the identification of the men in service.

After the application has been found in proper form it is passed to an awardee who computes the allotment and the allowance. Up to July 1, 1918, the allowance was dependent upon two factors—(a) the soldier's pay and (b) the family status. If the size of a family justified an allowance of, say, \$32.50 each month, the soldier was expected to contribute a like amount if his pay justified it, but in no case was more than half of a soldier's pay taken in the form of a compulsory allotment; an amendment to the act, just approved, provides that on and after July 1 the allotment withheld on account of Class "A" dependents is to be \$15, irrespective of the rank and pay of the soldier or the family allowance paid by the government, \$20 if he has both Class "A" and Class "B" dependents, and \$15 if he has Class "B" dependents but no Class "A" dependents. This procedure will materially simplify the process of awarding.

After the award has been checked, an award card is made out and sent to the disbursing officer in order that it may serve as a basis for the checks which he will send monthly to the allottees. The number of checks sent out each month is constantly increasing as will be evident from the following:

Sent out during month of	Number of checks	Amount
December 1917	21,000	\$468,329
January 1918	459,520	16,739,332
February 1918	591,664	19,976,543
March 1918	545,354	16,085,508
April 1918	596,852	16,852,915
May 1918	704,296	21,499,076
June 1918	857,638	26,623,623

At the present time these checks are being written on the typewriter, and this necessitates considerable work in comparing the names, addresses and amounts with the original award card; it is planned to install a mechanical system whereby checks will be printed from plates and the necessity for verification, therefore, will disappear. Some idea of the cosmopolitan nature of our army and navy may be gathered from the fact that many of the checks are sent to beneficiaries living in foreign countries; a partial list of the countries to which checks are being sent each month and the approximate number of such checks are as follows: Italy, 20,000; Sweden, 500; France, 2,000; British Isles, 5,000; Switzerland, 300; China, 550.

Some of the troubles of the bureau are caused by the failure of the soldier in the first instance to give the proper address of his dependents, or the failure of the allottee to notify the Post Office Department of her removal. At the present time over 12,000 checks each month are returned by the Post Office Department, the incorrect address having prevented their delivery. In such cases clerks trained in the vagaries of incorrect addresses attempt to interpret them; when this proves unsuccessful the soldier is communicated with and in the meantime the check is filed away in a systematic manner in the hope that an indignant demand to know why the usual monthly check has not been delivered may furnish a clue to the proper address. Delays have undoubtedly resulted in a number of cases, but they were inevitable when account is taken of the necessity for haste in creating the bureau and that it was compelled to employ for filing and indexing purposes a force of clerks who did not have sufficient time to prepare for the proper treatment of the applications before they arrived in overwhelming numbers.

Compensation for Death. If the death of a commissioned officer or enlisted man results from an injury suffered or a disease contracted in the line of duty, the government will pay compensation if he leaves a widow, a child, or a widowed mother. (The act has been amended so that after July 1, compensation is payable to a widow, a child, a dependent mother or a dependent father.) The amount of the payment is based upon the family needs, a widow alone receiving \$25 monthly during her widowhood, a widow and child \$35, a widow and two children \$42.50, etc., etc., the payment to the children being continued until the age of eighteen is reached.

or until marriage. (It is neither possible nor desirable to state here the various provisions relating to children mentally or physically incapacitated, all of the references to provisions of the act being necessarily abridged.) Up to July 1 there have been 15,088 claims for compensation due to deaths in the service, of which 6,716 have been disallowed as not coming within the act, 1,446 calling for monthly payments of \$38,642 have been allowed and the balance are in process of investigation and adjustment.

Compensation for Disability. The problem of determining the merits of disability claims is more complicated than the one involving questions of death. In the latter case the army records furnish a useful guide to assist in determining whether the death resulted from causes consonant with "line of duty;" but in the case of disability not only must the "line of duty" be determined, but the degree of disability also ascertained. Experts connected with the bureau are now engaged in preparing schedules which will tabulate all disabilities resulting from injuries or disease and express them as percentages of a condition of total disability. This schedule will attempt to refer each injury or combination of injuries to the usual occupations, so that a proper estimate of the resultant reduction in earning capacity may be determined. The loss of three fingers, for instance, in the case of a carpenter will represent a greater degree of disability than the same injury in the case of a lawyer.

One of the most useful and necessary duties of this department will be to prescribe and furnish medical and surgical treatment in order that disabilities may be reduced or caused to disappear entirely, the idea being not only to reduce the disbursements of the government but also to restore the injured man as a useful member of society. Up to July 1 there have been 5,405 disability claims, of which 985 have been disallowed and 1,156 have been allowed, requiring monthly payments of \$32,009, the balance being in process of investigation and adjustment.

Insurance. No government has ever adopted a similar plan for insurance for its armed forces, and no proper estimate of the number of men who have been called to active service was obtainable when the War Risk Insurance Act was prepared in July and August of last year. To those two factors can be ascribed the wide divergence between the estimate of the actuaries and the results

which have been obtained in the insurance section. Up to July 1, 2,579,912 applications have been received, covering \$21,640,065,000 of insurance, an amount approximately equal to all of the outstanding ordinary insurance of all the legal reserve companies operating in the United States. Without any form of organized solicitation from the office of the bureau, about one billion dollars of insurance are applied for every week or ten days. As new men are called to the colors, the flow of applications will continue and it is estimated now that about 95 per cent of the armed forces have taken out this protection. It is the proud boast of some regiments that 100 per cent of their strength are insured and that each man has taken out the maximum permitted—\$10,000. It may safely be stated that no army of any country in the history of the world has ever prepared for active service with the same provision made for the care of their dependents at home, a factor which must have its effect upon the morale of the soldiers. This is evidenced by a cable which has just been received from General Pershing, commander-in-chief of the American Expeditionary Forces:

All ranks of the American Expeditionary Forces appreciate deeply the generous measure the government has taken to provide insurance for their families, in proof of which more than 90 per cent of the men have taken out insurance. Wisely to make provision for their loved ones heartens our men and strengthens the bonds that unite the army and people in our strong determination to triumph in our most righteous cause.

The administrative work of the bureau is greatly simplified by the absence of any necessity for a medical examination, it being assumed that each man who has been accepted for service is a proper risk for insurance: the effect of the medical selection is not allowed to wear off, as the insurance must be applied for within one hundred and twenty days of the man's entrance into service.

The death claims which have accrued are divided into two classes—automatic and contract. By the terms of the act, any person in the active service on or after April 6, 1917, who failed to apply for insurance and whose death or total disability occurred on or before February 12, 1918, was presumed to have applied for and to have been granted insurance, payable in 240 monthly installments of \$25 each, the commuted value of these payments being about \$4,300. A number of such disability and death claims have accrued and have been given the name of "automatic claims."

Up to July 1, 63 automatic disability claims have been presented, of which 45 have been disallowed and 14 calling for monthly payments of \$350 have been allowed; during the same period 6,942 automatic death claims have been presented, of which 3,471 have been disallowed and 1,081 calling for monthly payments of \$27,025 have been allowed. The difference represents those claims about which doubt exists as to whether they belong to the automatic class or whether some application exists which would cause them to be classified as contract insurance. These cases are being rapidly cleared up.

The claims which have accrued under applications which have been filed with the bureau are called "contract claims," and up to July 1 about 295 total disability contract claims have been received, of which 196 have been disallowed and 3 calling for monthly payments of \$172.50 have been allowed; during the same period 6,423 contract death claims have been received, of which 7 have been disallowed and 4,696 calling for monthly payments of \$231,460 have been allowed.

Re-education. Section 304 of the act originally provided that in cases of injuries commonly causing permanent disability, the injured person could be required to follow courses of rehabilitation, re-education and vocational training. By an act approved June 27, 1918, a Federal Board for Vocational Education was created and Section 304 of the War Risk Insurance Act was repealed.

Every person who is disabled under circumstances which entitle him to compensation under the War Risk Act and who after his discharge is unable to carry on a gainful occupation or to follow his former occupation, will be furnished by the board with vocational rehabilitation whenever such a course is possible. While following the prescribed course, the discharged soldier will receive monthly compensation equal in amount to his monthly pay for the last month of his active service or to his compensation, whichever amount is the greater; if such a person was an enlisted man at the time of his discharge his family will receive the same compulsory allotment and family allowance as are provided under the War Risk Act for payments to the family of an enlisted man.

The courses of rehabilitation are furnished without cost for instruction and may utilize, with the approval of the Secretary of Labor, all of the facilities of his department in the placing of rehabili-

tated persons in suitable or gainful occupations. In the attempt to provide a continuous process of vocational training the board is directed to coöperate with the War Department and the Navy Department. The Surgeon General of the Army has established systems of vocational education in several hospitals for the benefit of the enlisted men prior to their discharge from the army. This results in the saving of much valuable time, in addition to the beneficial therapeutic effects.

Civil Relief Measures. By an act approved March 8, 1918, Congress enacted the Soldiers' and Sailors' Civil Relief Act "for the purpose of enabling the United States the more successfully to prosecute and carry on the War in which it is at present engaged." It is unnecessary to refer to those articles of the act which relates to judicial proceedings, the payment of rent, installment contracts and mortgages, for the Bureau of War Risk Insurance is concerned only with that portion relating to insurance policies within certain limits held by persons in the military service. The benefits of the act are available in respect of contracts of insurance which have an aggregate face value of not more than \$5,000, where such policies were issued and premiums paid thereon before September 1, 1917, providing that the policy was in force on that date and there was not outstanding against it a policy loan or other form of indebtedness equal to or greater than one-half of its cash surrender value. Under certain conditions, certificates issued by fraternal organizations also come within the act.

If a person in the military service having a policy or certificate described above desires to have the government pay his premiums for him during the war and for a period not more than one year after the termination of the war, he can make application to the company or society which issued the contract and as the premiums fall due the Secretary of the Treasury will deposit with the proper officer of each insurer the necessary bonds for the amount of such premiums. To indemnify it against loss, the government will have a first lien upon any contract of insurance receiving the benefits of the act and no settlements of any kind may be made which will interfere in any way with the security of such lien.

If within one year after the termination of his military service, the insured does not repay to the insurer the amount of his premium with interest, the policy immediately lapses and becomes void, and

the insurer then becomes liable for the cash surrender value thereon, refunding to the government the advance on account of premiums which it has made.

It is interesting to note that up to July 1 only 2,802 applications have been received by the bureau from men in the military service who wish to avail themselves of the foregoing privileges, but this is undoubtedly due to the fact that those who are entitled to participate are not as familiar with the provisions of the Soldiers' and Sailors' Civil Relief Act as they are with the War Risk Insurance Act.

The foregoing is a brief statement of the activities of the bureau during the first eight months of its existence. As pointed out before, no precedents existed for the guidance of those charged with its administration, and in consequence it became necessary to blaze a trail which has now developed into a broad path. Pending the completion of a ten-story building on the site of the old Arlington Hotel, which will be given over to its activities, the bureau is housed in twelve buildings in Washington; the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution have patriotically turned over the entire New National Museum for the use of the head office, thus enabling over 110,000 feet of floor space in an admirably lighted, fire-proof building to become available for this war activity. On July 1 there were over 7500 employees, and it may be safely stated that none of those engaged in the preparation of the act foresaw the enormous machine which would be required, or appreciated the effect which the act would have upon the morale of the fighting forces. It is believed that when the history of this great conflict is written, recognition must be given to the part which has been played by the bureau.

TRAINING FOR THE HOME SERVICE OF THE RED CROSS

BY PORTER R. LEE,
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At the outbreak of war, the home service of the Red Cross assumed the task of dealing directly and individually with the families of soldiers and sailors, in those matters of finance, counsel and skilled service concerning which they might wish its assistance. It was evident at the outset, that the fighting forces of the United States might be numbered by millions, most of them attached to families potentially in need of home service. The Red Cross at the time had no adequate equipment for the task. The number of trained workers in the field of social work for families and individuals had been steadily growing; but even by drafting such workers in the largest possible numbers from the organizations to which they were attached, the Red Cross would still lack a sufficient force. It became necessary to supplement the staff secured by this form of draft, with a much larger group of workers especially trained for home service.

In planning a comprehensive training scheme three definite factors had to be reckoned with. First, the urgent need for workers made it necessary to keep the period of training as brief as was consistent to the maintenance of a reasonable standard. Second, successful training for work of this kind has been found to involve a combination of practical class work and field work, under expert guidance, facilities for both of which are available only in a comparatively limited number of places. Third, the need for home service was sure to be as wide-spread as the population of the country, even if facilities for training were not: training courses might be set up where satisfactory facilities could be found, but since other places required workers, it would be necessary to recognize less ambitious efforts to equip them. In other words, it was necessary to set a standard of training which could be approached in a group of specially organized courses, distributed over the country, and to recognize for the time being that in addition to these, local courses

would be maintained by local chapters. These latter might be influenced at least by this standard even if they could not reach it. The specially organized course, given the name of Home Service Institute, representing the standard training of the home service worker, has been controlled by the National Headquarters of the Red Cross. The local course known as the Chapter Course has been controlled by the local chapter.

THE TRAINING REQUIREMENTS OF HOME SERVICE

The term "training" implies a definite task, the nature of which determines what the training should be. It requires no analysis to visualize the kind of human interest and material benefits which a nation, emotionally aroused, would like to make available for those whom its fighting men leave behind them. Once the task of bringing this interest to bear upon the persons affected is undertaken, however, it is found to bristle with difficulties which spell humiliation and disaster unless the person undertaking it knows how to handle these difficulties. These difficulties are not related alone to the problems of daily bread. They are frequently stubborn problems of business: the adjustment of insurance or benefits; the complicated matter of legal rights; the meeting of financial obligations; the carrying on of business. They are frequently baffling problems of home administration: the discipline and guidance of children; the family budget; responsibility for household decisions in which the absent member has been a factor. They are frequently the subtle but soul-wearying problems of adjusting the mind and spirit to a round of living from which one dominating personality has been removed. Every sort of family crisis, from birth to death, has been described to the home service worker with an implied or direct appeal for the suggestion, the sympathy or the concrete service which would lighten it.

These home problems which the war created are the familiar problems of disorganized family life in meeting which social agencies in America have developed increasing skill. The experience of such agencies offered a source of sound methods and principles for dealing with them. Indeed, when the Civilian Relief department of the Red Cross took over large numbers of workers from such social agencies, it insured the application of these methods and principles to its own task. Work with the families of soldiers and sailors,

however, was from the first placed upon a unique basis, in that such families, as a group requiring social services, were marked not by dependence but by the fact of their own supreme contribution to the welfare of the nation. Their needs were familiar human needs which could be met in specific ways, by those who knew how to meet them; but they could not for a moment be treated as objects of charity. The training of home service workers, therefore, was a training in the established methods and principles of social work and of their application to a new, homogeneous social group.

THE PROGRAM OF THE HOME SERVICE INSTITUTE

The history of the training of skilled workers in any field shows a steady lengthening of the period of training. This is true of medicine, nursing and engineering, for example. This experience has been repeated in social work, for which two year courses of training are now offered in several American schools. Undoubtedly such a course, modified to meet the peculiar requirements of home service, offers the best possible training for this purpose. To meet the urgent need for workers, however, it was decided to set up a short course which would cover as thoroughly as possible the fundamentals of social work with families, omitting everything except those features, which were essential as a foundation, upon which a worker might later build his own further training out of his own experience. This plan of abbreviated training was embodied in the Home Service Institute, the first series of which were started in October, 1917.

The institute provides for a six weeks' course taking the full time of students. It is divided into two parts, approximately twenty-four hours spent in class work which follows a prepared syllabus, and approximately one hundred and fifty hours spent in field work, in which the student has actual experience in dealing with disorganized families under competent supervision. The topics covered by the syllabus are as follows:

1. The Organization and Administration of the Red Cross.
2. The Field of Home Service.
3. The Fundamental Methods of Home Service.
4. The Unstable Family.
5. The Racial Equation.
6. The Use of Financial Assistance.
7. The War Risk Insurance Law.

8. Health.
9. Home Economics.
10. Child Welfare.
11. Employment of Women and Children.
12. Re-education and Re-adjustment of the Disabled.
13. The Personal Factor in Dealing with Disorganized Families.
14. Community Resources for Home Service.
15. The Use of Other Agencies in Home Service.
16. Qualifications and Responsibilities of the Home Service Worker.¹

The field work which in every instance is done in connection with a regularly established agency for dealing with families, is intended to give the students a first-hand knowledge of the problems of disorganized family life, training in making helpful contacts, familiarity with the resources of the community and the conditions upon which they can be used, and some insight into the routine of an organization.

Those who complete the work of an institute, are awarded a certificate by the National Headquarters of the Red Cross. The award is based upon the work in class, which is tested by examination and by the quality of the field work, as shown by the applicant's ability to take increasingly heavy responsibility in dealing with families. The field work of the students has usually been done partly in a family agency and partly in a home service section.

A YEAR'S EXPERIENCE WITH HOME SERVICE INSTITUTES

On May 28, 1918, forty-four institutes had been completed. One or more had been held in each of the following cities: with a few exceptions they were conducted in affiliation with a university or a school for the training of social workers:

Atlanta, Georgia	Dallas, Texas
Baltimore, Maryland	Denver, Colorado
Birmingham, Alabama	Indianapolis, Indiana
Boston, Massachusetts	Los Angeles, California
Cincinnati, Ohio	Milwaukee, Wisconsin
Chicago, Illinois	Minneapolis, Minnesota
Cleveland, Ohio	New Orleans, Louisiana
Columbia, South Carolina	New York City, New York
Columbus, Ohio	Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

¹ Limitation of space forbids an elaboration here of the content of these topics. Those who wish such an elaboration are referred to a recent number of *The Annals* on "Social Case Work."

Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania	San Francisco, California
Portland, Oregon	Seattle, Washington
Richmond, Virginia	Springfield, Illinois
St. Louis, Missouri	Washington, D. C.

The geographical distribution of these institutes is significant, for they have reached all sections of the country. In most instances the institutes have been repeated, and the plan involves a continuing series of them in practically every city where they have been established, and where experience shows that satisfactory facilities for conducting them can be secured.

Something of the achievement of the institutes is indicated by the following data which was compiled as of May 27, 1918:

Number of Students registered.....	742
Number of Students graduated.....	607
Number of Students sent officially by chapters.....	78
Number of Students from Institute city.....	290
Number of Students with college education or equivalent	123
Number of Students with high school or equivalent	148
Number of Students with normal school education	23
Number of Students with grammar school only.....	5
Number of Students with previous social service experience.....	17
Number of Students with other previous professional experience	22
Number of Graduates in volunteer work.....	144
Number of Graduates in salaried work.....	54

The institutes in session as this article is prepared will graduate enough students to bring the total for the first year, which ends in October, well over one thousand.

The work of the institutes has been made possible by the ready and efficient coöperation of those who were invited by the Red Cross to conduct them. The directors of the institutes in every instance have been either college teachers of social economy or sociology, or social workers with experience in training new workers. For many of them, the institute represented a new type of instruction which was added to their regular duties; for all of them, whether accustomed to the training of social workers or not, it involved modifications in their customary teaching practices. This service they have rendered gratuitously to the Red Cross. The field work of each institute has been provided by established social agencies, such as charity organization societies, and by home service sections. It also has been arranged for without charge,

The administration of the institute plan has been in the hands of two national directors of home service institutes, who have been responsible for the organization of institutes and for the maintenance of standards of instruction. It was recognized that the requirements of different sections of the country and the different academic experiences of the directors of institutes, would necessitate considerable flexibility in the actual program outlined. To permit this and at the same time to definitely indicate the ground which must be covered, the Syllabus of Instruction was prepared, with a detailed development of each topic and copious references to source material.

In limiting the membership of the institutes to twenty-five students, the Red Cross authorities had in mind the necessity of making the most out of the short time available. This seemed to be as large a group as could receive the desirable amount of individual attention from the director and the supervisor of field work. In recruiting the membership, it was found necessary in many instances to select from a much larger group which had applied for admission. This has been especially true of the later institutes, which may be taken as evidence that the plan is succeeding by the acid test of experience. Local chapters are finding that institute graduates have an equipment for home service which is worth the time and money required to secure it.

In selecting the membership from those who apply, consideration has been given both to the qualifications of candidates and to the needs of the communities from which they come. The selection has been made, in consultation with the division directors of civilian relief who have been able to advise as to the communities where workers were most needed. Much time and patient effort has been expended in many such communities, to persuade the local Red Cross authorities that to send a representative to an institute, would pay dividends in better service to the families in whom they are interested.

If the class work alone of an institute were its most important factor, it would be possible to establish one wherever a teaching institution competent to follow the syllabus could be found. The field work, however, has from the first been reckoned as the more important. Therefore institutes have been established only where satisfactory field work could be secured. Field work as conceived

in the institute plan, is something more than mere experience in dealing with disorganized families. It is such experience planned, supervised and interpreted by a competent worker. It requires well organized work, a sufficient number of families under treatment to keep students busy, and workers qualified to train. Obviously, facilities for field work for twenty-five students each devoting approximately twenty-five hours a week to it, can only be provided in larger cities. This fact puts a definite limit on the extension of institute centers.

A modification of the institute plan has been worked out in a few colleges, where a selected group of students, usually seniors, have followed the institute syllabus under instruction, usually taking a full semester of fifteen weeks for the purpose. They have then arranged to do the required amount of field work during the summer vacation, in some agency approved by the Red Cross. Upon completion of the class work and the field work they are eligible for a college course certificate.

CHAPTER COURSES IN HOME SERVICE

Practically every chapter of the Red Cross is using volunteers in its home service. The number of volunteers in a few chapters run into hundreds. As the maximum number of institutes in operation at any one time, each training twenty-five students, has been twenty-six, it has obviously not been possible to meet the entire demand for trained workers in this way. It is also true, that despite the effort to distribute the institutes widely, many sections of the country are remote from the nearest one. A few cities, also, have found it possible to arrange for their own training of volunteers.

To meet this demand for local training, chapter courses have been recognized. They have been organized and controlled entirely by the local chapters, although the national and division headquarters have stimulated them and have rendered all possible assistance. These chapter courses have followed no such definite standard of instruction as have the institutes. Under the influence of the divisional headquarters, however, they have tended to become more and more substantial. The teaching material prepared for the institutes, including the syllabus, has been available for them, and in some divisions instructors have been provided by headquarters. In some instances the standard of instruction in class has been as high

as that in the institutes, although chapter courses usually cover less ground and do not include as much of the indispensable field work. One division reports sixty-eight such courses having been held up to May, 1918, with a total registration of 1,820.

The most immediate and important result of this plan has been a substantially higher standard of service to the families of soldiers and sailors, than would have been possible without it. Its hurried launching made it inevitable that it would have to develop by experience. Six weeks is at best a morsel of time in which to prepare inexperienced persons for the delicate task of understanding and influencing troubled lives with which they have no natural contact. The experience of the year has revealed wide variations in the use which different institutes have made of the time allotted, and the training program outlined. Nevertheless, the evidence is abundant, that those who have taken the training offered have gone to the work of home service with a clearer understanding, a surer touch, a wider resourcefulness and a more effective gift of helpfulness than they could have had without it. It has been impressed upon the members of institutes, that they have not qualified as completely trained workers in six weeks. Rather they have had revealed to them what it means to be a trained worker, and along what lines they must think and act in order to complete their training as they acquire experience.

Those who have been close to this experiment in training for social work, come to have a profound belief that it will lead to a wider acceptance of the importance of training for all forms of social work, and to the more rapid development of material and facilities for giving it. Faith in training for social work has been none too widespread in this country. The Home Service of the Red Cross has revealed to a multitude of persons fired with the zeal for service, that zeal, knowledge and proficiency are not the same things. To combine them effectively, requires preparation under the guidance of those who have learned through their own training, whether formal or otherwise, to do so. That which can be done, the uninitiated with the right natural qualifications can be taught to do. Recognition of this fact in the field of social work was never so general as now.

THE SCOPE AND ORGANIZATION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF CIVILIAN RELIEF

BY MARGARET F. BYINGTON,

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Within the past year nearly three million men have received from the selective service boards a brief notice that they are now in the service of the United States Government and on a given date are to report for duty. To each man this has meant a total revolution, a break from all accustomed routine and personal ties that must be very overwhelming. In the few days interval before he starts, innumerable decisions seem called for and endless anxieties arise.

Perhaps the man is leaving a young wife who needs his counsel as never before. He knows that the government will make an allowance to his family from its funds, but he wonders how much it will amount to and what he has to do to get it. He is buying a home; what will he do about the payments which fall due while he is away? He had planned to send his sister to normal school; will she have to go to work instead? His mother is just able to do her work now; what will happen if her rheumatism gets worse next winter? Everyone who has ever started on a long journey knows how, as the moment of departure approaches, such questions as these throng into one's mind. It is at that moment that the Civilian Relief Department of the American Red Cross steps forward and offers, through its home service sections, to serve as next friend to the fighting man's family while he is away, helping it to meet these problems and other unexpected ones which will arise later.

The government in calling men to serve in the National Army has indeed accepted a definite responsibility for the welfare of their families and has, to this end, provided through the War Risk Insurance Law allowances from government funds to supplement what the man contributes from his pay. It offers the men insurance at a low cost; it provides medical care and reeducation for every man who is wounded or disabled by sickness; it provides compensation as long as he is disabled. This program, however, must of necessity be developed in the large without relation to the needs of

particular communities or individuals. Skillfully as the law has been drawn, the allowance for a family of a given size will not be equally sufficient for one which owns its house and garden in a village and for one which lives in a city tenement. Nor can the government possibly create any machinery through which it can help people solve these intimate personal problems which grow out of the man's departure.

The Department of Civilian Relief has therefore undertaken to help in the adjustment of these inevitable inequalities; to see that the families of men in the service maintain their normal standards of living; to stand by the lonely and discouraged wives and mothers. If all is going well at home and letters are full of cheering news, the men at the front will have courage for their task overseas. Mr. Persons said on his return from France:

That our men may be protected as far as possible from worry about their families, and that nothing else that will maintain morale be left undone, it is obvious that the American people must see to it that no family of a soldier lacks for anything that will enable it to write honestly cheerful letters abroad. Any condition which would disturb its representative on the front and make him anxious to return and set things right must be cured and without delay.

An American commander at the front and a leading military surgeon in Paris, both stated that the Red Cross could do nothing more important from a military standpoint than to maintain the welfare of the homes of our fighting men. The American soldier is a man of spirit and action; not disposed to worry about himself, but likely to be deeply anxious about the welfare of those dear to him, who, far away, are beyond any help that he can give in time of acute emergency or trouble.

So the Civilian Relief Department will play its part in helping to win the war and in seeing that family life is kept as wholesome as may be in this time of suffering and loss. To provide wise and helpful service to every soldier's family which seeks it is, however, a colossal task. A year ago the Department of Civilian Relief was carrying on its only activities through its thirteen division offices and national headquarters. Now nearly 5,000 chapters scattered all over the country are organized for this service, with 20,000 workers enlisted in their ranks; 300,000 families have already asked some service of their local home service sections.

How is this colossal program in organization being achieved? At one end is the Washington headquarters office with its bureaus which endeavor to relate the activities of the great government

departments to individual needs as indicated in the succeeding articles on "Information Service" and "Disabled Soldiers." The department also has special home service representatives in the camps both here and overseas with whom any man who is worried about some home problem can talk things over. These representatives will, through appropriate channels, report this difficulty to the home service workers in the town where the man lives; they will in turn try to adjust the matter and then send word back to the soldier telling him how affairs are progressing at home.

These two cables taken just by themselves show what it must mean to a disheartened worried soldier to receive back through the home service section this prompt assurance that all is well at home.

From the home service representative in France:

Stevens is much worried about his wife and child as he has not heard from them since March. He would greatly appreciate a report on their present welfare and the assurance that the Red Cross will take care of them should they need any assistance.

From the home service worker in the man's home town:

Our visitor known Mrs. Stevens well all winter. Red Cross aided regularly until allotment over two hundred dollars came in May making her very comfortable. Some money advanced. Wife and baby well, going to seashore for change. Mrs. Stevens writes husband regularly, probably incorrect hospital address. Writing details.

Between this national headquarters and the local sections are thirteen division offices, in each of which is a director of civilian relief, whose task it is to stimulate and direct the organization and work of the home service sections. While a considerable degree of initiative rests with the local committee, they are nevertheless subject to direction and advice from these offices. There are now some 200 workers on the division staffs, including field representatives who visit the sections, helping to see that their committees are properly organized and to develop higher standards of service in the newer or weaker ones.

These division offices are also responsible for another phase of civilian relief work and one which has been its most important peace-time activity, the care of civilians suffering as the result of some disaster, fire, flood or tornado. This is also a war service, since through it the Red Cross stands ready to assist in disasters growing out of war activities. It organized, for example, extensive relief

after the Eddystone explosion. It had a squad of workers on the dock at half-past six in the morning to meet and care for the survivors of the torpedoed *Carolina*.

The heart of the work, however, lies in the 5,000 chapters of the Red Cross now organized all over the country. Each of these chapters, which is usually responsible for a county, has a number of committees dealing with various activities such as surgical dressings, hospital garments, etc., one of which, the Home Service Section of the Civilian Relief Committee, has special charge of the work for the families of soldiers, sailors and marines. On this committee are serving those people in each community who would be best able to advise people in perplexity, such as the doctor, clergyman, school-teacher, business man or lawyer, women of intelligence and tact. Each of these committees has a chairman and secretary responsible for carrying on the work; most of them have an office and a telephone. The chaplain tries to make widely known the fact that any family which has a representative in the fighting forces can turn there for advice on any problem by advertising in the local newspapers, by letters to the men before they leave and to their families afterwards, and by placards in post-office and church and grange.

Money for running expenses and for the relief of the families who need it is a just charge on chapter funds. So far, over \$2,000,000 has been spent in the relief of families by the whole department. This included loans to tide over people until their allowances were received; grants to meet special needs such as medical care, needed vacations, interest on mortgages, etc.; regular allowances when government checks are not sufficient to provide a wholesome life. Large as this sum is, the giving of material relief is a small part of the service rendered to these families, as we shall note later.

In the larger cities the burden is already a heavy one, requiring extensive organization. The Boston chapter had, before March 1, been in touch with 2,239 families. In March it had a staff of over 200 workers, most of them volunteers, and spent about \$10,000 in relief. A similar burden of work is being carried in New York, Philadelphia, Chicago and all other large centers of population.

Even in rural districts, however, home service work must also be organized, since the few families in some small town should have just as careful and sympathetic help as the many in the big

city. The divisions aim to secure a home service representative within an hour's journey of each family in the United States. This cannot of course be achieved in sections like the Mountain Division where one representative lives on a ranch forty miles from the railroad and many miles from her nearest neighbor. The Red Cross is definitely striving, however, to make its interest available for every lonely or disheartened wife or mother by organizing for effective service the original impulses of neighborly kindness.

Is there need of this elaborate organization and what are the actual services which these groups are rendering? Home service sections are not given to compiling statistics,—in fact, it is hard to get some chapters to even report the total number of families who have been seeking their advice. In order to make tangible the problems confronting them, it may be well to quote a few facts from a special study made of 50 families in one city chapter, showing how many of these personal complications which the war creates are brought to home service workers and the kinds of service they have been able to render. Of these 50 families, 38 were feeling especially the loss of the wage-earner. Nine of the women seemed overwhelmed by the loss of the man's companionship; 46 of them were worried about his welfare (one wonders about the four that were not). Twenty-seven of the men in service were worried about those families of theirs; 46 families asked for information about allotment and allowance.

Let us put these figures into more human terms. One little Italian widow cannot sleep nights because of her terrors in the lonely house now that her son is gone; an old Yiddish mother, half paralyzed and dependent upon the care of her one son, weeps night and day inconsolably. Mrs. Hart, for all that her Paul was as erratic as husbands come, "couldn't get used to keeping house just for the children and it was terribly hard on Sundays as she missed her husband so." Young Ecco, his aunt said, "was the light of the house, always merry and joking and kept up the spirits of the family."

The visitors from the home service sections are trying to overcome in some measure this loneliness and anxiety by giving to these wives and mothers the assurance that someone cares and will stand back of them. As one soldier writes, "It is you who have again brought sunshine into our home." It is often possible, too, to give those who do not read easily or who live in remote districts, a more

vivid sense of the meaning of the war, so that they may perhaps feel themselves part of the nation in its war sacrifice.

One wishes that it were possible, as it never can be, to put into words the quality as well as the quantity of service rendered. Because these volunteers have offered their services in a spirit of patriotism and enthusiasm, because so many of them wear service pins themselves, they are able to establish unusually helpful relations. While it is impossible to sum up the services rendered, a few illustrations of what was done for these 50 families will indicate the breadth of the work. In 27 instances the men were urged to take advantage of the War Risk Insurance Law, and in 19 the men's officers were asked to talk to the men about it. In 17 instances men in service were informed about facts concerning the welfare of their families, including announcements of the arrival of two new babies. There was much sickness, not all of it due to war worry, and 35 families received medical care. Employment was found for 10 people, several of them too handicapped to secure it for themselves; 6 families were helped to move to better homes, 13 mothers received much-needed instruction about how to buy more wisely or how to solve financial problems—a difficulty that often arises where the man has always been the financial manager. In half these families, at least, special plans were made to stimulate their interest in life by means as varied as parties and participation in Red Cross work. Some material relief, chiefly temporary, was given to 45 of these 50 families. Often more serious service problems were encountered—death, moral delinquency, desertion. The problems of these families are as varied as human life, and call for skill and patience in the solution.

The chapters in rural districts are proving to have problems as difficult. The blind wife of a man in the Regular Army was visited almost daily by the members of the home service sections. At the time when her baby was born the child of three was sent to relatives in a nearby town. When the home service secretary asked the mother if she would like one of the motor service girls to take her for an automobile ride she asked timidly whether she could be taken as far as this other town—"so that I can feel my little girl's face again." Her life is built these days around the sympathy and understanding of these workers.

A woman who had been suffering from ill health for years was

sent by the home service section to a nearby city for an operation; the little child with trachoma was brought from her mountain home for treatment. There are some even more distinctively rural problems to be encountered, as in the case of the chapter that secured the promise of 200 farmers to give the hours from seven to nine any evening, on call of the home service secretary, to work on the farm of women whose husbands had gone a-soldiering.

We may quote from the recent report of one field representative in the southwestern division, "The request for advice on coöperating with the guardians of Mississippi Choctaws which opened the question box on family problems in Oklahoma City may have been somewhat disconcerting but need cause no surprise, for rural neighborhoods have every problem of the city and more. Blanket Indians riding in automobiles with chauffeurs, Bohemian colonies living old-fashioned, hard-working, thrifty lives, little oil towns with shifting populations of as many as thirty-two different nationalities and three small villages exclusively of negroes who will tolerate no white folks in their midst are some of the varieties of background in Oklahoma's home service problem. The Mexican colonies throughout the southwest, so picturesque to the tourist, contribute a full share of complexity to the standards of family care. The little cotton farms of Texas and Arkansas, often held by negroes, present acute difficulties when the sons who were farm hands are drafted; and Kansas and Missouri's rural situation is no less pressing though so large a proportion of the population is American white. One may get off the train at a way station almost anywhere, however, to find a home service sign posted by the ticket office window, and feel the comforting assurance that the Red Cross is on the job.

The home service program is, in short, to let every soldier and every soldier's family know that this group of people in his own home town is ready to stand by his family during his absence in any crisis that may arise. It does not intrude its services, going only to those families which have expressed the desire to have such advice. Its first responsibility is to provide the simple human friendliness that is so needed in the dark days which inevitably come. But it also seeks to give intelligent as well as kindly service, to solve some of the problems which the family itself has always considered insoluble; to give material relief when that is needed.

The great problem confronting the national organization has been to see that this service is intelligent as well as kindly. Obviously it is not possible to find enough trained social workers to put one in every county in the United States, even if the amount of work always justified it. Yet in serving some of these families there is need for just as skilled service as that given by the organized social agencies of our large cities. In the large cities the problem, while difficult enough, has not been carried out on any new principle. Trained social workers have been put in charge and have drawn into service large numbers of volunteers. Nothing has been more illuminating than the number of women who have been willing to take training to prepare themselves for this work and who are, even through the hot summer months, serving with unfaltering devotion.

The problem in the small towns and the rural districts is more difficult and while it has by no means been solved, experiments are being tried which will be instructive in the whole field of rural social work. It is the first time that an attempt has been made to cover the whole country with a network of local agencies and to establish in them sound standards of social service. Knowing that it would of necessity have to place this responsibility in the hands of local people, the Department of Civilian Relief has been developing plans for giving them some training for the task. The field representatives of the division offices who are, most of them, trained social workers, have also been chosen for their flexibility and willingness to adapt their standards to the needs and opportunities of rural life. Such a representative when visiting a small chapter may spend a whole day with the secretary and chairman, going over individual family situations with her, showing her what are the problems that need consideration and skilfully suggesting possible methods of solution.

Conferences are also held from time to time. Recently in Kansas 165 delegates from home service sections in various parts of the state came together for three days of solid discussion of these problems, one delegate coming 375 miles to attend it. Slowly but surely they are coming to see by what methods their work can be made truly valuable.

Another method for training the workers is through the home service institutes, six weeks' training courses which are now given in twenty-six cities, in affiliation, usually, with a local school for

social work of the sociology department of a university—twenty-four hours of lectures are given on the methods of dealing with home service families, child welfare, health, women in industry, etc. In addition each student has to do 150 hours of field work in some case work agency of good standards. Already 718 students have graduated from such courses and practically all of them are doing active home service work.

By these methods, by the careful preparation of literature and by constant correspondence, the Department of Civilian Relief is slowly but surely developing its work throughout the country. It hopes soon to be able to say that no soldier's family need to carry any anxiety which can be solved by intelligent helpfulness. Through its educational activities, moreover, some understanding of the significance of social welfare work is spreading into our rural communities and will be of service not only to the families of our fighting force, but as a nucleus for an increasing understanding of the means of social regeneration.

Unquestionably one of the great opportunities of the war as well as one of its dangers, lies in the tendency to centralize all activities in great governmental or quasi-governmental bodies. Communities and individuals will accept suggestion and direction from without as never before. On the other hand, if local initiative and interest should thereby be lost, the after-the-war problem would be greatly intensified. The American Red Cross is attempting to secure the advantages and minimize the dangers of this situation. Through its national headquarters it works out relationships to other national organizations, it develops policies and offers training. Through its local groups it is drawing into service thousands of devoted men and women who are getting a new vision of the possibilities of social service and community betterment which they will carry over into peace times. In the meantime they are loyally performing this essential war service.

PURPOSE AND METHODS OF A HOME SERVICE SECTION

By MARY WILLCOX GLENN,

Chairman, American Red Cross, New York and Bronx County Chapters, Home Service Section.

The service of the Red Cross is typified in one of the most popular posters of the second war fund drive by the tense figure of a woman who with outstretched arms urges her claim that the marching forces against whose shadowy outline she is silhouetted be not forgotten. What she, trained for a specific work, can give the wounded needs no defining. Neither does the service represented by the "Greatest Mother in the World," another poster of universal appeal. The child, a victim of war's ravages, must be tenderly, skillfully treated. An authentic portrayal of bodily anguish quickly brings the means of redress. The public knows that what the nurse and doctor have to offer is something more than money in itself can buy. Emphasis on the need of funds will not lessen the recognition of the important rôle the nurse and diagnostician will have to play.

But the purpose and methods of home service cannot so readily be depicted. A popular pictorial appeal, one which stimulated the imagination to conceive of threatened family life as steadied by simple direct means, would, in itself, be a denial of what home service aims to be. The aim is to individualize the family, to treat each as unique, never to make the assumption that money in itself is necessarily a solvent of difficulties. The public's tendency is to assert in one breath that home service is no charity, and to demand in the next that it be chiefly an almoner of funds. The property inherent in money does not suffer change because the name of a process of distribution is arbitrarily altered. An office characterized as a place where money may easily be obtained because the applicant has a right to it, and in which, because of the "right," few questions are asked, will tend to become an agency for the financial relief of the least resourceful families in a community. It will, moreover, be unlikely to relieve any family continuously, for the habit of the dispenser of funds will be to alternate quickly between facile credulity and sharp distrust. The honest intention to give money as a right carries with it a sense of the community's right to have money conscientiously used. The corollary of the thoughtless, emotional

giving of money is distrust of the subject of the aid. An office safeguarded against suspicion of laxity or parsimony because in it the right of the individual to receive liberal treatment, of the community to have its money conserved as a trust, are each acknowledged and each secured through trained thinking, will be one to which the sensitive, the independent in spirit, will be willing to go. Such an office will be blessed if it bear steadily in mind the fact that the great lovers of humanity have been able spontaneously, helpfully, to give goods to their fellowmen, because of their unfailing intuition that the immaterial gift of their spirit transcended the material in value.

Financial relief, solicitude for family health, an immediate lessening of physical or mental suffering, are incidental to home service. A consideration of family life which envisages the future while provision is made for the present, is basic. The morale of the fighting man is kept in mind, a duty of the patriotic home service worker being to help maintain army morale by assurance given that family life is safeguarded. There is, however, a deeper claim. The service is a trust. The trust is to deliver to the returning soldier not the fabric of the home he left, but a home which potentially, however housed, will *carry on*, refined by common sacrifice. If he fail to return, if he return broken in mind and body, the demand of the trust is that there may abide in his home a quality which will perpetuate its value. If he return a stranger to his old responsibilities, his one-time affections, the trust is to try to revivify the attributes lost in the big demoralization of war. Any tale of service rendered fails to give an impression of the fine shades of difference in treatment which should characterize any sound family case work. Some instances taken from the records of our section may, however, suggest variety.

An instance of physical care, reminiscent of the "Greatest Mother in the World," is after care for a sergeant's little daughter, who suffered from infantile paralysis. Helpless when she left the hospital, the doctor promised ultimate recovery if she were given careful oversight and enabled to get regular exercise. Providing a tricycle was the means used on the physician's advice.

An ambitious boy given an opportunity to study law, a capable girl lessons in typewriting, are instances of educational opportunities. An artificial leg for a soldier's father to enable him to work

and stop street begging, a position as stewardess for a woman so that she might work her way back to England and be near her British husband fighting in France, make promise of better security of the home through industrial openings. A second mortgage secured on a piece of real estate, a canceled contract which overtaxed a family's resources, a readjustment of expenditure so that a household might manage on a reduced income without lowering any essential of the standard of living;—each is an instance of economic adjustment.

Correspondence with police authorities in Ireland, learning thereby the regimental number of a man who deserted his wife and enlisted in the British army, and securing subsequently an allotment of his pay; re-instating in the navy a boy whose family in Montana were anxious about his status because they knew he had tried to desert from the United States navy and enlist in the Canadian army, and getting his officer's promise that he would keep an interested eye on him; protecting a wayward girl whose brother in the service was apprehensive about her conduct, are all instances of intervention in behalf of a better morality. A widower, whose child by his request was withdrawn from an institution for fear parental control would be forfeited, and was placed in a boarding-house where the father might visit his boy at will and advise care shows one way in which family solidarity may be served.

An instance which suggests that home service may be international in scope and may strike down to racial roots, is illustrated by the request of a Jewish father in the British army to have his little daughter taken from a public institution in New York state and boarded in a private family. A good home was found through a Zionist society. The family boarding the child promised, in fulfilment of the father's wish, to take her later to join her grandparents in Palestine. Securing care in a neurological hospital for a girl subject to mental aberrations, placing a distraught mother under observation in a psychopathic ward, validating the compensation claim of a woman whose husband became insane in the line of naval duty prove the need of protecting the interests of the mentally unbalanced.

Any statement of treatment recently planned and executed fails to prove that desired results, even if attained, will be held. Quotations from letters received by members of our staff will, however, give positive proof of the regard in which we are held by some of

the men and their families. They are witness to the influence the section begins to exert.

One man writes that his family feels neglected because the visitor had not called recently; another that he turns to the Red Cross for "advice, help and comfort." A sergeant says, "I have heard from home and the news which I got cheered me a great deal.

. . . . It is a great consolation to me to see how you and the Red Cross have helped them (his mother and his wife) out." A private writes that he had not forgotten the kindness shown his wife and adds, "I would like for you to visit her as often as you can spare the time, as I left her in a bad condition and I certainly feel sorry for her." "It has lifted a great weight from my mind to know that they have someone to give them the proper care while I am absent from home," writes a soldier from a southern cantonment. From another southern cantonment comes a letter in which the private says, "Glad that you will think and pray for me. . . . I wish that you will look into my family and take care of them while my brother and I are away. . . . I will always write to you and think of you as a true friend of the family." And from still another cantonment, "I received a letter from home stating how a very nice woman representing your people was home and that she encouraged my mother very much."

A wealth of family affection breathes from the simple words, "Your favorable report of the courage of R— and S— (two small sisters) during their trying time with adenoids is also a source of much pleasure to me. Tell them I am proud of them for being so brave." And in the extract from the letter of another man, "I guess you all know how a soldier feels when the only sister that he has is sick and don't hear from her for some time." A soldier "at sea en route to somewhere in France" wrote: "Miss —— has helped me to be more efficient than I thought I'd be when I left my family and answered the call." After speaking in some detail of what the home service visitor had meant to his family, he continued: "that alone is enough to spur one on to use the best that is in him." The place of home service in the great scheme of patriotic duty fulfilled is recognized by the aviator who wrote: "I must say that you are certainly doing your bit."

The testimony of two women may be added to this partial exhibit of how the families under care react to the thought given to

their homes. "My husband says he can go away with a much lighter heart now that he knows his little girl is in the hands of two good women like you both," writes one, and the other, a trained nurse whose husband was in a training camp says, "I want to thank you for all the time and trouble you had to take to attend to the matter for me. . . . I know when you read this that you will say that I should give the Red Cross the full measure of my gratitude for the wonderful help they have given me in my trouble. I do, but I realize very keenly that if you were not gifted with such a wonderful insight into human nature and a great fund of sympathy, all the good would have been taken out of all visits and help given."

There is a tender little missive from which one is tempted to quote. It was written by a little girl who had been sent in the spring to the country for a needed change. "I did not forget about the doll youse send me. I was afraid to take it along. I fell in love with that sweetheart doll," she wrote; and in reading one felt in her response to the gift which had been inspired by affection a something that was creative in quality.

Two gifts came to the office which also had the power to stir the imagination. One was some stalks of cotton grown in Georgia and sent by a soldier; the other a medal cast in Germany in 1914 in anticipation of the German army's triumphal entrance into Paris, and brought by a sailor who had bought the medal in Birgenhead as a souvenir,—the typical product of the south offered in token of appreciation of what a northern office was doing for boys in the service of the United States, and the corroboration of Germany's sinister design given in recognition of Red Cross service by one of the men America had sent to annihilate the Central Powers' gross assumption.

A sailor appealed in behalf of his three children under five. He wanted home service to supervise their care and act as custodian of the money he would appropriate for board and other necessities. He had always tended them at night, and supervised their feeding. His wife, a young actress, came later to look us over. Her method of investigation being to trust to her intuition, her decision was quickly made to acquiesce heartily in the father's plans. "You'll do," she said, as she looked critically at the visitor. To include her in the effort made in behalf of the family group became our problem.

A widow's only son enlisted, and she could not bear the cost of the sacrifice. She persuaded him to secure a first discharge, and later when he had been drafted, a second. But he grieved over his failure to be in the service, and she gave final consent to his enlisting a second time. A home service visitor learned to know her intimately during these periods of devastating decision, and in winning her affection got a heartening impression of the moral courage which underlay the ultimate decision. This act of heroism, whose distinguished service cross must be stamped on the heart, not worn on the breast, was cited by the visitor in speaking before a small country audience. After the meeting a woman present came forward to say that she had two sons. She had consented to the going of one but had held the other. Now she would restrain him no longer.

The conviction grows, as I read letters such as those from which I quote, and as I listen to what the visitors say about their contacts with families, that men in the service want assurance that the Red Cross will protect their homes through steadyng family morale, giving the right chance to the child, interpreting to the woman the shifting value of coin and custom. The men who fight know that the federal allotments and allowances will in the main cover essential needs, but that financial sacrifice is the common demand. The place of Red Cross relief funds in a scheme of family protection will be rightly conceived by those who shrink neither from making or suggesting sacrifice, but who consider in each case how far the standard of comfort may be altered without jeopardizing the essentials of a right standard of living.

When the New York and Bronx County Chapters established a Home Service Section late in March, 1917, there was no body of detached trained case workers. The established social agencies in the community had not only absorbed such workers as were trained but were training new recruits to augment their own staffs. The newly organized section manned its office with a worker whose experience of many years had been in a district of the New York Charity Organization Society, supplemented by service under the Red Cross in two periods when the local civilian relief committee was called on to provide relief and rehabilitation following on a disaster. Around the worker gathered a rapidly growing body of volunteers whose training came in large measure through action.

The readiness of the School of Philanthropy to give a lecture course, of the districts of the Charity Organization Society to provide practical experience, of women eager to train for patriotic service, meant that when families began in large numbers to apply to the office there was a staff eager, and comparatively prepared, to meet their needs. The grip of the work itself holds steady those who come under its human influence, draws many in to give larger portions of time than was contemplated, develops an ability to stand the physical and emotional strain involved, quickens the intelligence to finer appreciation of human variations and reactions. A learning through doing, when the thing to do is to meet human need, the will to do a response to a patriotic impulse, can bring illuminating results. But the learning how to do the thing aright depends on someone being at hand to furnish clues and inculcate principles of action.

How to provide adequate supervision has become a difficult problem to meet not only by the New York and Bronx County Chapters, but by the chapters throughout the country. The two needs have run side by side: to increase the force of field visitors, and to add to the staff of supervisors. The advertising of courses of study, appeals made in colleges and churches, frequent calls on war enrollment bureaus, urging friend to enlist friend, have been tried simultaneously, repeatedly. The hand-picked method has proved the most successful in securing quality, but too slow in results to be used alone. There is the competition with other war activities to meet, and the rule not to cripple the force, professional or non-professional, of the continuing community agencies to observe. But there undoubtedly is sufficient energy to meet the requirements of each agency if those responsible for building staffs learn how to voice their appeal so that it reaches the imagination and satisfies the intelligence of women who have a margin of time.

In beginning a second winter of work when our section can count on the services of a group of supervisors and assistants, of visitors and office workers which on October first will doubtless number nearer four than five hundred, we shall be prepared to assume responsibility for conducting continuous general chapter courses and special courses for selected groups. This past season, two of our chapter courses have been given by a member of our staff. One course, arranged by us, was given at the University Settlement to

a small group of neighborhood young women. One of this number is now able to assume responsibility for running the home service information center, opened at the settlement. Plans are being made to repeat this particular experiment in another part of the city next winter. A course offered by the School of Sociology of Fordham University will be conducted by members of our staff, the practice work given under our supervision.

Those responsible for supervision have turned to the School of Philanthropy for inspiration. The director of the school has agreed to conduct a class of twenty-five members of the home service staff, who will bring into the class room current case problems, there to get a deepened appreciation of guiding principles and to learn how to evaluate the fresh reactions families are making to the new conditions. Out from the class room the supervisory force should carry a stream of influence which should vitally affect the community's attitude towards family life, after as well as during the war.

The readiness with which the various social groups work for and with the Red Cross in behalf of soldiers' and sailors' families makes unified effort unprecedentedly easy. Newly organized groups such as the regimental units, the Jewish Welfare Board, and the National Catholic War Council are not only ready but eager to use and be used by home service. This spirit of trust imposes a serious obligation. The field is clear of obstruction, the sole hindrance to satisfying achievement lies in the staff's immaturity; but the staff has the will to use its many sided opportunity.

America more fully reveals herself to those who through home service reach out to protect her interests, who, purged of detachment, become at one with her peoples of many races and different creeds, who, as part of her fighting forces, battle for the ideal which lies in the treasury of her homes. The service is uneven, the effort crude, but it has the quality of youth which holds it on tiptoe. Expectancy, in fact, is the distinctive note. The attitude of alertness gives the force a resilience which carries it over periods of emergent demand. The strain of answering the call to help an unanticipatedly large number of families to carry their burdens could be borne with equanimity only if there were love for one's God, one's country, and one's fellows; faith in the power of one's fellowman to respond to one's effort; hope in what home service will bring to the child.

Charles Peguy, one of the finest spirits the war has disembodied, wrote:

"Mais, ma petite esperance
Est celle qui tous les matins
Nous donne le bonjour."

What our section strives to hold is the power to face each day's task with a gallant, a buoyant salutation.

INFORMATION SERVICE OF THE RED CROSS

BY CLARENCE KING,

Director, Bureau of Information Service, Department of Civilian Relief,
American Red Cross.

Giving information to families of soldiers and sailors is as much a part of home service as giving them aid when sick or in want. This information service constitutes a prominent part of the work of the home service section of each chapter of the Red Cross. Relatives of enlisted men desire information of many kinds. There is hardly a family from which a man has gone to camp or to the front which sooner or later does not feel the need of prompt and accurate information such as the Red Cross is equipped to furnish. Home service sections are advising how mail should be addressed to soldiers and sailors; how information may be obtained of those sick, wounded, captured or missing; what the War Risk Insurance Law means, and how to take advantage of its provisions.

Each home service section has in this work a two-fold opportunity: first, it can save untold anxiety and suffering. Sympathetic, prompt and accurate information, quieting fears, relieving anxiety and encouraging self-help serves materially to maintain the comfort and health of these families who have spared their breadwinners and protectors to the service of their country, and thereby also helps to sustain the morale of the fighting men themselves. Second, it can give such information, which is the most natural means to establish acquaintance and confidence between the home service worker and the family, and thus to discover opportunities for further service.

Therefore, the information service is not operated as a separate bureau but as an integral part of each home service section. Where possible, men of legal training are placed in charge, but with offices immediately adjoining the rest of the home service section, for every care should be taken that the seeker for information does not depart until the Red Cross has learned what other kinds of social service may be needed.

Early in the war when five hundred families had received assistance from a home service section in one of our largest cities a count was made of the kind of help which had been rendered. In every instance the acquaintance with the enlisted man's family had commenced by one of his relatives coming to the Red Cross for information regarding family allowances or government insurance.

WAR RISK INSURANCE LAW

By an act of Congress approved October 6, 1917, known as the War Risk Insurance Law, the United States made certain provisions for the insurance of members of the military and naval forces against total disability and death, for the payment of allotments and allowances to families and dependents of enlisted men and for the payment of compensation to disabled men, or to families of deceased men. The act supersedes existing pension laws and guarantees to our fighting men what has been characterized as "the most complete and generous system of safeguards and benefits ever provided by any nation in the history of the world."

The benefits of this act may be sketched briefly as follows: If the enlisted man has a wife, whether or not he also has any children, or if he has one or more children but no wife living, he is compelled to make an allotment of \$15 per month. This is taken from his pay each month. To this the government adds, for a wife \$15; for a wife and one child \$25; for a wife and two children \$32.50 and \$5 more for each additional child.

If there is no wife living, there is added to his allotment \$5 for one child; \$12.50 for two children; \$20 for three children; \$30 for four children and \$5 more for each additional child.

If the soldier has no wife or children, but has parents or brothers or sisters who are dependent on him he may (but is not compelled to) make an allotment of \$15 per month. The allowance added by the government is \$10 a month for one dependent parent;

\$20 a month if both parents are dependent; and to each dependent brother or sister \$5 per month. If he has a wife or children and hence is making a compulsory allotment to them, he need only allot \$5 of his pay in order to secure the allowance for a dependent parent, brother, or sister.

The act provides for compensation very similar to the workmen's compensation given to factory operatives. Compensation in the case of death to a widow without children is \$25 per month until her death or remarriage; to a widow with one child \$35, and so on increasing with larger families. To a child, where there is no wife, \$20 until he is 18; two children \$30, etc.; to a dependent parent \$20. If both parents survive the deceased they will receive \$30 jointly. If the enlisted man is totally disabled, he receives from \$30 to \$100 per month according to the size of his family and the nature of his disability. If he is partly disabled, the payment is proportional to his loss in earning capacity.

Under this act, an enlisted man can also secure insurance from \$1,000 to \$10,000 for death or total permanent disability at a cost which is only a small part of the cost of insurance in regular insurance companies. The exact cost varies in accordance with his age. The premium is deducted from his pay monthly. If he is totally and permanently disabled, or dies, the principal is paid to him or to the person named by him as beneficiary in equal monthly payments running for twenty years. At the end of the war the insurance can be changed into the usual forms of life and endowment insurance, even if the soldier has contracted some illness in the meantime which would make him uninsurable in an insurance company.

Of course the payments made to the beneficiary in the case of the soldier's death or to himself in case of total disability are additional to the compensation payments described above, which are a free grant without payment on the part of the soldier. The rates of the government insurance are so low that a private soldier can pay a \$15 allotment and also carry \$10,000 insurance and still have several dollars left for spending money, so it gives him a splendid chance to protect his own future as well as that of his family.

FURNISHING INFORMATION AS TO ALLOTMENTS, ALLOWANCES, ETC.

It is, of course, of great importance that all relatives of soldiers and sailors should understand fully these provisions of the law

relating to family allowances, allotments, compensation and insurance. Accordingly the Department of Civilian Relief early in October, 1917, urged upon home service sections that this matter be given thorough attention. That the help of the home service sections is appreciated and desired is made evident by a letter dated December 27, 1917, written by William C. DeLanoy, Esq., director of the Bureau of War Risk Insurance, from which the following paragraphs may be quoted:

I am informed that under your leadership there has been established a home service section in all of the Red Cross Chapters throughout the country. This home service appears to be admirably adapted to fill an existing need as conveyer of information and advice to the dependents of the American soldiers and sailors respecting the operation of the act of October 6, 1917.

Nothing could be more essential to the maintenance of the morale of our fighting forces than the belief by the soldiers and sailors that their dependents are being cared for. To accomplish this it is necessary, not only that the men in the army and navy receive full information, but also that dependent wives, mothers, parents, and children be apprised of their rights and the means of securing them.

In disseminating this information and giving such advice no organization that I know of has greater potentiality for service than the American Red Cross. May we count upon your coöperation?

This coöperation has been rendered by sending to all home service workers information about the War Risk Insurance Law in the form of a handbook with supplements from time to time, containing the latest information as to changes in the law, Treasury Department decisions, and other regulations and rulings in reference to its application.

In the accomplishment of the Herculean task imposed upon this new Bureau of War Risk Insurance, it was inevitable that many wives, children, parents, and other dependent relatives should find the financial assistance due them from the government long delayed. In such instances these relatives come to the home service section. Here they are furnished with information as to how to proceed with the official application blanks and with instructions for filling them out. These blanks are forwarded to the registrar of the Department of Civilian Relief at Red Cross Headquarters in Washington for presentation to the Bureau of War Risk Insurance. Inquiries in reference to delayed allotments and allowances are also forwarded to the registrar from home service sections.

Under his direction a trained force handle these inquiries, working in conjunction with a special force in the Bureau of War Risk Insurance which works only upon cases referred through the Red Cross. By this method the Department of Civilian Relief investigates and straightens out such difficulties in over five thousand cases per month.

CURRENT INFORMATION FROM WASHINGTON

In addition to sending out information concerning the War Risk Insurance Law and its administration, the Red Cross keeps in touch with official departments at Washington, sending through its fourteen division offices to home service sections other current information in reference to the rulings of the Navy Department, or of the Adjutant General, the Surgeon General, or the Judge Advocate General of the United States Army, and other important information of interest to the families of soldiers and sailors. Latest advice as to new legislation for protecting the legal rights of enlisted men from infringement during their absence, for permitting furloughs so that farmers' sons may help in putting in the crops, and for after-care and vocational rehabilitation of disabled soldiers has been relayed promptly through Red Cross channels to the families of enlisted men.

To be of use the information thus issued from national headquarters must, of course, be communicated to the relatives of soldiers and sailors or to the men themselves. For the most part this information is furnished orally by home service workers in response to questions put by relatives of enlisted men, when these relatives come to the home service section for information. By posters, by articles in the press, through the local exemption boards, by circular letters and in many other ways the existence and location of the home service section is made known to these relatives. In some of the smaller communities it has been possible for a home service worker to call personally upon the family of each drafted man without intrusion and thus to make known the information service and other service which the local chapter is equipped to render.

Frequently home service workers have been able to talk with all drafted men from the locality at the office of the draft board before their departure for camp. In such cases the representatives of the Red Cross have urged the importance of taking out the govern-

ment insurance and have explained the provisions of the War Risk Insurance Law as to allotments, allowances, and compensation.

In the camps and cantonments the provisions of the War Risk Insurance Law are explained to the newly drafted men upon their arrival by the personnel or insurance officers. There is, however, in each of the large cantonments a Red Cross field director and also an associate field director in charge of home service. This associate field director is supplied from National Red Cross Headquarters through the division offices with much of the same information as is issued to the home service sections, so that he may answer the many questions asked him by enlisted men, not only questions as to the War Risk Insurance Law, but many other important questions as well.

If a man is in need of legal assistance or advice, the associate field director in charge of home service obtains the facts and refers them to the home service section in the man's home town for action or opinion by the lawyer or legal committee coöperating with such section. In the vast majority of cases such legal questions cannot be dealt with effectively at the camps. However, cases which demand the services of a lawyer at the camp are handled by the division or camp judge advocate, frequently at the instance of the associate field director.

FRUITS OF INFORMATION SERVICE

An abstract description of the information service of the Red Cross is less informing and less interesting than a recital of actual cases of service rendered.

In March, 1918, the crippled parents of a man who had been drafted and had not claimed exemption, drove all the way from western Pennsylvania in a ramshackle buggy to see the President, because their customary financial support had been cut off. They reached Washington, soaked to the skin, having spent the night before in their buggy because they could not afford to go to a hotel. From the White House they were referred through the War Department to the Red Cross. The home service section of the District of Columbia not only cared for their bodily comfort but informed them how to secure the family allowance, how to make application for their son's discharge, if necessary, and also told them of work which the crippled father could secure in manufacturing munitions in spite of having lost one leg.

In April, 1918, a mountaineer, eighty-two years old, tramped eighteen miles from his cabin in the mountains of West Virginia to a home service section where he obtained information as to what the government would do for him during his son's absence in the army.

Early in the war a drafted man from western Pennsylvania was discharged from the army for tuberculosis. He returned to his home town totally disabled, without funds to support himself or to secure the needed treatment, and without knowledge that he was entitled to compensation from the government. This information was furnished him by the Red Cross. He was assisted in making out his claim and is obtaining a monthly compensation of thirty dollars from the government and is now receiving treatment in a sanatorium.

A laborer enlisted and left behind him a wife, an aged mother and a younger sister. The wife obtained a position at thirty dollars a month and endeavored to support the mother and sister. They had no other income although they owned their home. After a few months, news arrived that her husband had died in camp. She was without funds to meet the burial expenses and had no knowledge of the assistance due from the government. From a home service section she learned that the government would pay for the transportation of her husband's body and the burial expenses and that she was entitled each month to twenty-five dollars compensation and twenty-five dollars automatic insurance, and that twenty dollars compensation would be paid to the mother. She was advised how to make application for these payments. In her distress it was a great help to have someone who knew how to remove the immediate practical difficulties of the situation.

Perhaps the Red Cross information service which is most appreciated is that rendered to a wife or mother who is worried about the health of the enlisted man. They are told how to get in communication with him through Red Cross channels and how they may secure prompt and accurate information as to his whereabouts and condition through the associate field director at the camp or the Red Cross representative at the hospital.

A few months ago in Arkansas the wife of an enlisted man received an official telegram directing her to forward identification marks which would serve to identify the body of her husband who

was stated to be dead in Brooklyn. She had had no notice of his death and had received a cheerful letter from him dated on the day when he was said to have died. She took the matter to a home service section. The Red Cross worker knew how to get in touch by telegraph with the proper authorities and within a few hours the wife was assured that it was a case of mistaken identity and that her husband was alive and well.

Due apparently to pro-German propaganda circulated throughout the southwestern portion of Virginia, the family of an American soldier in France received a rumor that this man had been wounded in battle, that both of his legs had been amputated and that he had died after two weeks in the hospital. The home service section in the town telegraphed to the division director whose office in this case was in Washington. The division office communicated with the Adjutant General of the Army and received positive assurance that no casualty report of any kind had been received concerning this man, that he had not been in the hospital, and that undoubtedly the statement both as to his being wounded and as to his death was false. Within six hours after the family had first heard the alarming news they received a telegram containing this reassuring information.

Sometimes the information is rendered to the enlisted man concerning his family. In such cases the need is no less acute. Recently a soldier at one of the large cantonments became worried because his father was sick, and, he feared, in financial distress. The home service section near his home was able promptly to assure him that his father was convalescing in a free hospital and would soon be discharged and that the government allotment and allowance were being received regularly.

A soldier at another cantonment went to the Red Cross home service man at the camp stating that twelve years before he had run away from home and that before he embarked for France he wished, if possible, to get in touch with his family of whom he had heard nothing in the meantime. He asked the assistance of the Red Cross. The only information he could give as a basis for the search was the name of the town and the street upon which they had lived twelve years before. On the basis of this information the home service section in that town, after searching the directories without result, finally learned through a former neighbor where

the family had moved. A happy reunion was brought about and the boy sailed for France with his morale distinctly improved.

The Red Cross has assumed definite responsibility for maintaining the welfare and the standards of home life of the families of American soldiers and sailors. Officials in America and commanders in the American Army in France have declared that there is nothing which the Red Cross can do which will contribute to a military victory more directly than this. To discharge its responsibility adequately and to render this service effectively, it is essential that the entire home service organization of the Red Cross shall be well equipped with a complete, prompt, and accurate information service.

It is a serious responsibility which the Red Cross has assumed in undertaking to advise and assist enlisted men and their families in securing the benefits of legislation and regulations enacted for them. These families have come to rely upon the Red Cross as their legal counsel in securing allotments, allowances; in obtaining advice as to compensation, government insurance, and in many other matters. The Red Cross must neither fail to give prompt information when needed nor err by furnishing hasty and inaccurate advice. Failure properly to discharge the obligation immediately may seriously prejudice the interests of the enlisted man and his family. Wrong advice may deprive the man's wife or mother of the government allowance or prevent her from securing the government insurance in the case of his death.

By the initial request of the Bureau of War Risk Insurance and by the exigencies of the situation, the Red Cross, through its information service, has become, whether it would or not, an unofficial adjunct to the Bureau of War Risk Insurance, to various branches of the War Department and other departments in Washington, in answering a multitude of important questions as to laws and regulations affecting enlisted men, which are directed by families of these men to Red Cross chapters throughout the country. Neither the importance of the service nor the responsibility which goes with it can be overestimated.

THE AFTER-CARE OF OUR DISABLED SOLDIERS AND SAILORS

BY CURTIS E. LAKEMAN,

Assistant to the Director General of Civilian Relief, American Red Cross.

Will the United States be as successful in making civilians out of its soldiers as it has been in making soldiers out of its civilians? Much hard effort must be expended and many forces must pull together with a single purpose before this result comes to pass, but we can at least say that a promising beginning has been made. Congress has unhesitatingly recognized a national responsibility toward the disabled soldier and sailor, has clearly defined the program of the federal government for their rehabilitation and has provided the funds. Administrative plans based upon careful study of the successes and the failures of other countries in this field are being put into effect. The chief factor of doubt is whether the American people will back up these plans with the weight of a public opinion so intelligently formed and so dominating that no disabled man shall fail to receive the most generous and constructive assistance nor shall any be permitted through neglect or misdirected sympathy to degenerate into dependency.

A philosophical patriot, if there still be leisure in which such a creature can exist, would find much to ponder in the record of our first year of participation in the Great War. Our successes have been as unexpected as our failures. If our pride in the ability of the American business man to solve every problem of the mobilization of industry on the colossal scale of the war has gone into an occasional nose dive, who, on the other hand, would have dared to predict some of our striking achievements in the social and political field, in projects involving the rapid integration and expression of the national will? Who, for example, could have foreseen the success of the selective service act either in its unanimous and unquestioning acceptance by the people or in the foresight, rapidity and precision of its administration? In the light of our too well-known pension legislation who could have dared hope for the enactment of a national measure so enlightened, so just, so permeated with sound social statesmanship as the War Risk Insurance Act?

THE VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION LAW

And now we have, in the Vocational Rehabilitation Law, approved by the President on June 27, 1918, a registration of national purpose, and an assumption of national responsibility toward the disabled soldiers and sailors of the present war, which place this new statute on the same high level of social vision, while in effect rounding out and completing the compensation provisions of the older law with a broadly conceived scheme of governmental training designed to restore every disabled man, so far as physically possible, to economic self-dependence.

To be sure we started, as in so many of the purely military phases of the present national effort, with the tremendous advantage of the experience of other countries before us. Earnest students of the subject had watched the evolution of the plans of other nations for the care of the disabled. Beginning in nearly every instance with reliance on local and private philanthropic effort, each of the major belligerents has been forced to assume national responsibility for the treatment, training, and replacement in industry of the men injured in battle, and to coördinate under government control all the local, sporadic and sometimes misdirected activities in this direction. An exceptional example has been set by our valiant neighbor on the north. From the beginning Canada has seen the problem of the disabled soldier as a national one, and has attacked it as courageously and as successfully as her brave men fought at Vimy Ridge. To our own credit be it said that we have promptly recognized her leadership and have adopted bodily, with the necessary adoption to our needs, the essential features of the Canadian system.

In the first place our law, following closely the spirit of the Canadian plan, emphasizes the principle that the making of civilians out of soldiers is a task which should be administered, at least in its later stages, by civilians. This principle would appear to be justified by the same logic which requires that soldiers should direct the reverse process of turning civilians into soldiers. Accordingly the mobilization of the educational resources of the country, in order to provide the vocational and professional training which will fit the disabled soldier to make his own future as secure and as profitable, if not more so, than before he entered the army, is entrusted to a civilian branch of the government, the Federal Board for Voca-

tional Education. The same agency is charged with the duty of finding the reeducated man a place in which to demonstrate his new earning power, and with the further responsibility of following him up with protecting influences until he is again on a safe and sound economic basis, capable of supporting himself and his family with what he earns, supplemented by a generous compensation for his physical injury, which cannot be reduced merely on the ground that he has succeeded in overcoming his handicap.

A second fundamental principle of the Vocational Rehabilitation Law is that the man's choice of occupation, as well as his decision whether to take any course of reeducation at all, should be entirely free. The law has no element of military or economic compulsion in it, except that once having elected a course of training the man must stick to it, or face the possibility that the Bureau of War Risk Insurance may withhold his compensation, in whole or in part, during the time of his wilful refusal or neglect to continue his studies. The insistence on the superior expediency as well as justice of the voluntary choice implies the need of expert vocational guidance, and of systematic educational propaganda in order to reach and form the man's own will to make the best of his residual powers. It is believed that in the very method of persuasion and utilization of many kinds of sound influence, while leaving the eventual decision to the man himself, there is something essentially consistent with American principles of individual freedom and self-determination. Undoubtedly the method is harder, just as it is sounder, than the simpler expedient of ordering a man into school under the force of military discipline. Its very difficulty, relieved as it is by the advantage of accord with established educational theory, is a challenge to the forces, such as those of Red Cross Home Service, which can bring to bear the weight of their constructive influence in helping the man decide right and "carry on" to the successful end.

The new law wisely leaves the whole range of medical and surgical treatment to the military medical authorities. Taken in conjunction with the present policy of the army this means that the soldier will remain in the service until his physical and functional restoration and cure are complete. Here again we have a new recognition of a national responsibility. Formerly it was the first thought of the army to get rid of incapacitated men as soon as possible, transferring the burden of their after-care to civilian agencies. Consider-

erations of justice as well as those of expediency have revolutionized the practice in this respect. If the modern army of militant democracy takes a man for service, even for but a few weeks, public opinion demands rightly that he shall be restored to civil life only when disability incurred in line of duty shall have been removed so far as modern medical skill and resources are capable to effect such cure. And after a man has been expensively trained to be a soldier it is likewise good sense to keep him in the service, if the restorative treatment has made this at all possible, even if he is assigned to special and limited duty. An admirable illustration is the proposed use of disabled men with the necessary personal and educational qualifications to teach their disabled fellow comrades. Many a private under this plan may attain a commission which he might not otherwise have reached, even after having himself received a disabling injury.

During the time a man is in the army and undergoing treatment for his disability, the varied resources of modern therapeutic effort will be unsparingly applied. This means that, among other means of treatment, work in the form of bedside and ward occupation, or the more purposeful activities of the hospital workshops will be prescribed for its curative effect. This is an essential part of the medical treatment and will remain under the control of the military medical authorities. But obviously it may well lead to the formation of a vocational taste, and should develop without a break into the more consciously applied vocational training which the Federal Board will offer immediately upon discharge from the service. Indeed, the period of hospital treatment, sometimes extending over many weeks or months, is a critical time in determining the man's vocational future, and in establishing new ambition and new habits of industry. The fullest measure of success of the American plan of re-establishment in civil life will not be attained except with the most cordial and complete coöperation between the military and the civilian official agencies dealing with these complementary fields of treatment and training. The law makes this possible, in fact prescribes it so far as any law can guarantee administrative results, by requiring the Vocational Board to coöperate with the War and Navy Departments "in so far as may be necessary to effect a continuous process of vocational training."

This brief summary of the Vocational Rehabilitation Law is necessary to any adequate consideration of the relief and after-care

of the disabled American soldier or sailor. Taken with the War Risk Insurance Law and the policies now in force under the general statutory powers of the army and navy, it clearly defines what the government will do for the men and the families of the men incapacitated by wounds or disease for further military service, and thereby marks out the residual field within which private individuals, organizations, community forces and the general public in its unofficial capacity can express the universal desire to do something for the heroes of the war. No rational plans for the relief and assistance of disabled soldiers and their families can be made except by building upon and extending the foundation thus laid by the official agencies of the government. Indeed, the first concern of relief agencies must be to provide information and advice as to the rights of the soldier or sailor under federal and state laws and as to the benefits which the government and its auxiliary agencies are ready and anxious to confer upon him.

Among the private organizations whose efforts will supplement the national program, it is natural to think first of the Red Cross. The purpose and field of activity of this organization are in an unusual degree colored with public interest and controlled by government authority. With its 22,000,000 members, its 3,000 local chapters and their 15,000 additional branches, the Red Cross is equipped as no other organization to give aid and comfort to our soldiers and sailors and to assist their families at home. And this responsibility, once assumed, must carry forward into and through the critical transition period from military to civilian life. This means that when a soldier or sailor is discharged on account of disability, the Red Cross will not abruptly break off existing relations of service to him and his family, but will continue such aid as may be necessary and desirable until the man is completely re-established in normal civilian life, or until the burden of his permanent relief, if totally incapacitated, is taken over by relatives or by appropriate public or private agencies; and the Red Cross will make no distinction between the man suffering from a disabling wound requiring special measures of physical reconstruction, and his comrade incapacitated by tuberculosis, heart disease, shell shock or any other non-surgical ailment. Honorable discharge for disability makes each and every soldier eligible for any assistance the Red Cross can render to him or to his family.

This leads to the question of the distribution of the causes of disablement as affecting profoundly the plans for the after-care of soldiers and sailors. The emphasis with which the needs and interests of a particular group of disabled men are advertised can hardly be relied upon as a safe index to the relative importance of the group, either as to number or urgency. Some classes, such as the blind, make an instant and universal appeal to the sympathy of all. Yet there were only twenty-seven cases of blindness out of a total of 41,000 Canadian soldiers returned during the first three years of the war. Again, so much interest is naturally felt and expressed in the visibly mutilated that one forgets how small a fraction they account for in the total of disability. Out of each million soldiers at the front, 10,000 a year may be expected to become subjects for physical reconstruction and vocational rehabilitation. Of these 10,000 about half will be medical cases, that is, men suffering from tuberculosis, shell shock, rheumatism, diseases of the heart, stomach, and other organs. The other 5,000 will be the actually wounded, but of these surgical cases only 500 will have lost arms or legs. There are many other forms of injury which result in more or less permanent disability. A man may have a piece of muscle shot away, or a wound causing a stiff joint, or partial or total paralysis. Often the outward appearance of such a man is not visibly affected and it is difficult to realize the seriousness of his disability as regards the taking up of normal occupation. Tuberculosis accounts for a much greater share of disablement than is commonly realized, and it is difficult to arouse as much direct interest and enthusiasm for the after-care of those suffering from this great prince of the forces of disease. Likewise it is surprising to learn that 24.4 per cent of the men already returned from France were sent home on account of nervous or mental disorders.

PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTOR INVOLVED IN AFTER-CARE

The after-care and relief of the disabled soldier is complicated by a psychological factor of the utmost importance. The change from the military to the civilian status involves a radical mental readjustment. For many months, perhaps years, the man has given no thought to the source of his daily bread. Superior authority has regulated his daily conduct, telling him what to do and when to do it. A long period of hospital care with solicitous attendance

may have accustomed him to pass the time with little or no concentrated effort and attention to anything more strenuous than playing games or enjoying concerts, "movies," and other diversions. To be sure, an effort will have been made to offset this danger by a prescribed régime of diversional and curative occupation even in hospital days, and with a certain number, a period of thoroughgoing vocational reeducation will have supervened. But at best there is a vital difference between going to school and going to work and the soldier has to go again through the adjustment to a new and different mode of life which this change involves.

Anyone who leaves his customary round of business and domestic life to travel extensively, even for a few months, finds it difficult to get back into harness. Much more is this effect likely to be felt by young men at the most restless time of life, taken abroad into the new scenes and into indescribably strange experiences, while in the case of those who are wounded, all this is further complicated by the terrible ordeals of battle and suffering. It is surprising that men returning from such experiences adjust themselves as successfully as they do to the round of factory or office routine. No clearer evidence of the high average character of our returned soldiers will be found than in the success with which they fight these new battles and make good as civilians just as they have done in their service at the front.

Thus everything that is done for returning soldiers and sailors must be based on a sympathetic understanding of their spiritual as well as their physical sufferings. Relief and rehabilitation agencies must recognize, first of all, that they are dealing with a changed man, and with a range of psychological problems quite different from any they are likely to have met with in civil life. Inevitably when the returned soldier strikes out again in the world there will be periods of heavy discouragement. He may find uncongenial working conditions, unsympathetic employers, inconsiderate foremen, sharply competing associates. All these things or any of them may dash his reviving hope and interest in his own future. Then is the time to call out the reserves of sympathetic counsel and encouragement. The Red Cross through its trained home service workers and other good friends, neighbors and relatives must not be slow to rally to his support. The man must be assisted to meet and overcome these psychic obstacles. If he loses one job, another must be found, and

if necessary a third, fourth, fifth, and so on until the right and lasting connection is made and the worker is settled in his work, in his mind, and in his outlook on life.

IMPORTANCE OF FAMILY INFLUENCE

In all plans to assist the returned soldier the influence of the family is a great force which must be mobilized and guided to its constructive task of rebuilding determination, ambition and character. It is quite as important to keep up the soldier's morale through the encouragement of his family while he is convalescing and refitting himself for work as it was while he was in the service. This factor of family influence is all the more important when we remember that never until this war have so many men left their home life to enter the army. To a large extent our Regular Army was made up of unmarried men, forming in effect a professional group. The Civil War to be sure called out our citizens in great number, but no such great change has ever faced American family life as at present. This gives a different aspect to plans for the care of those who will return never to fight again.

At the present time the United States maintains nine national homes for disabled soldiers, caring for upward of 20,000 veterans of the Civil and other wars. In addition many of the states maintain their own homes for disabled soldiers, in which some 12,000 more veterans are cared for. No concerted systematic effort was made by the government to restore the wounded veterans of the Civil War to earning capacity. The legless or armless veteran became a common and pitiful spectacle of our daily life. Only those of sufficient strength of character and will power fought out their own problems and made their way in spite of such handicaps. But a different method and spirit must hereafter prevail. The return of a single American lad now fighting in France only to become a life-long inmate of a soldiers' home is to be thought of only as a last resort. Every consideration demands that the boys who suffer disablement in this final battle for democracy must be restored to their own homes and given every chance to work and play with the rest of us.

The family influence, fostered and directed when necessary by wise and sympathetic counsel, may be effectively brought to bear at several stages. In the first place, at the time he is making up his mind as to the occupation in which he will be trained to ensure his

future economic welfare, the coöperation of the family is required to give the vocational counsellor the necessary background of information as to his tastes, past successes, and ambitions. When the choice is made with the full concurrence and advice of the immediate relatives there is greater chance that family encouragement will be given all the way through and that the man will stick to his work and make good.

The first desire and impulse of every wounded man is to go home. This is natural and doubtless arrangement will be made for at least a brief visit when the man's condition warrants, as soon as he returns from the other side. But his best interests require usually a more or less extended period of hospital treatment and the wise family will concur in this attitude of the army medical authorities and forego their desire to have the boy come home at once, so that he may remain to receive the fullest benefit of the treatment which the government under its present liberal policy is ready to give him.

In the same manner the wholesome influence of family must be exerted all through the course of treatment, training and early days of work in the new position. Friends and neighbors, the government and the Red Cross may do much for the disabled soldier at all of these stages in his progress toward normal life, but unless the family understands and assists him at every turn his fight will indeed be uphill and against heavy odds.

But to have the family strong in its moral support, the family itself must be beyond the reach of suffering. To this end the government and the Red Cross must still continue their service. Wisely therefore the government will give the same allowance and the man must make the same allotment from his pay, while he is taking re-education as when he was in active service. Likewise the Red Cross, already familiar in many instances with the man's family problems, stands ready to keep on with every form of assistance, advice, counsel and material relief which it has given while the soldier or sailor was at the front.

Indeed it is impossible to separate relief to the disabled man from relief to his family, and in Red Cross practice no different committee will intervene upon the return of the man to a family already under care by the home service section. Obviously assistance in any form to the family is assistance to the soldier and vice versa. In the Canadian experience the assault of present war-time conditions

upon family life is a most formidable factor. Problems of separation, delinquency, divorce, desertion and family disintegration have arisen in a manner to daunt all but the stoutest of heart, and the same problems may not unreasonably be expected here as we go deeper and deeper into the war.

FINANCIAL PROVISION FOR RELIEF

Turning now to the more concrete problems of after-care, the first factor applicable uniformly to all disabled men discharged in line of duty, is the financial provision for relief made by the War Risk Insurance Law. Based on the solid rock of a just and impartial general law, this measure makes liberal provisions for men while in service and for their dependent families both during the war and in the future to which the latter must look forward after the disablement or death of the principal wage-earner. The underlying theory was well stated by Judge Julian W. Mack, Chairman of the Committee which drafted the bill last year, as follows:

The proposed provisions for the men and their dependents should not be offered as gratuities or pensions, and they should not be deferred until the end of the war. The wives and children, the dependent mothers and fathers of the men, should not be left, as in previous wars, to the uncertain charity of the communities in which they live. The minds of our soldiers and sailors should be put at rest, so far as their loved ones are concerned, by the knowledge that they will amply be provided for by their government as a part of the compensation for the service they are rendering to their country. In like manner they should know in advance that if they are killed in battle, definite and just provision has been made for their dependents, and that if they are disabled, totally or partially—if they come back armless, legless, sightless, or otherwise permanently injured—definite provision is made for them.

Article III of the law therefore aims at a new and better pension system based upon the accepted principles of modern compensation legislation. The schedule of monthly compensation for the total disability of an enlisted man or officer provides for payments ranging from \$30 a month if he has neither wife or child living, up to \$75 a month if he has a wife and three or more children. Ten dollars a month additional is provided for a dependent widowed mother or father.

To an injured person who is totally disabled and in addition so helpless as to be in constant need of a nurse or attendant, an additional sum not exceeding \$20 per month may be paid in the discretion

of the War Risk Bureau. For the loss of both feet, both hands, or both eyes, or for becoming totally blind or helpless and permanently bedridden from causes occurring in the line of duty in the service of the United States, a compensation of \$100 per month is to be paid without allowance in that case for a nurse or attendant.

Compensation for partial disability is adjusted on a sliding scale according to the average impairment of earning capacity resulting from similar injuries in civil occupations. Thus the compensation of a disabled soldier or sailor varies with the degree of disability and with the size of his family, and the amount cannot be reduced by reason of individual success in overcoming the handicap and increasing the earning power.

Over and beyond the provisions for compensation for death and disability in the service, the War Risk Insurance Law in Article IV also makes available to every commissioned officer and enlisted man and to every member of the Army Nurse Corps (female) and Navy Nurse Corps (female) when employed in active service, the benefits of life and disability insurance carried by the government at a very low premium. In the event of death or *total and permanent disability* the amount of the policy (which may be any sum in multiples of \$500, between \$1,000 and \$10,000) is payable in 240 monthly installments. If, however, the insured person becomes totally and permanently disabled and lives longer than 240 months, payments will be continued as long as he lives and is so disabled. With the mutually advantageous object of reducing physical disability and lowering the burden of compensation upon the government, the law further provides that every person in receipt of compensation for disability shall submit to reasonable medical or surgical treatment furnished by the government. The Bureau of War Risk Insurance in coöperation with the United States Public Health Service has made arrangements to meet this requirement of the law. Discharged soldiers and sailors entitled to compensation may now receive free examination and treatment by private physicians or at private hospitals or at the hands of the medical officers of the United States Public Health Service and in the hospitals of that branch of the government. The application for compensation automatically puts into effect the procedure leading to such examination and treatment.

Obviously the first duty of those who give practical aid to returned soldiers is to see that they and their families take advantage

of all the benefits conferred by the War Risk Insurance Law and other federal, state and local measures for their relief. To this end the legal aid and information service, as described in another article of this series, is an integral part of the work of every home service section of the Red Cross. At the time of writing there are approximately 3,500 home service sections with perhaps 5,000 additional branch offices, representing altogether an enrollment of over 20,000 volunteer workers.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS OF AFTER-CARE

The relief and after-care of the tuberculous soldier constitutes a special problem of unusual importance. From the beginning of the war up to June 1, 1918, almost exactly 10,000 men had been discharged from the army on account of this disease. Under the older policy many of these were discharged "not in line of duty," the government taking the position that service was not responsible for the disease which, it was held in such cases, existed previously and had escaped detection. Pressure of public opinion has aided in changing the policy of the army and now once a man is accepted for service at any military station any subsequent disability, unless clearly due to his own negligence or misconduct, is held to have been incurred in line of duty. This means that men who develop tuberculosis in the service will be sent to army hospitals and kept if possible until the disease is arrested, certainly as long as they will stay. In order to meet the greatly increased requirements, the army is rapidly developing new and adequate facilities for the hospital treatment of tuberculosis. In addition to the Regular Army sanatorium at Fort Bayard, New Mexico, new buildings have been constructed or acquired at New Haven, Connecticut, Otisville, New York, Markleton, Pennsylvania, Azalea, North Carolina, Waynesville, North Carolina, Denver, Colorado, and Whipple Barracks, Arizona, which before the coming winter will bring the total of beds available for the treatment of tuberculosis in the army up to 5,875.

With the approval of the Surgeon General, an arrangement has for many months been in force whereby lists of all men discharged on account of tuberculosis are sent to the state public health authorities, the state anti-tuberculosis associations and the division bureaus of civilian relief of the Red Cross. Local plans of coöperation are then worked out between these agencies so that the health authorities

and the anti-tuberculosis workers provide any necessary examination, medical attendance and sanatorium care while the Red Cross charges itself with the provision of financial assistance and relief to the family for as long a time as may be necessary until the burden of permanent care and relief is transferred to the appropriate civilian community agency.

Somewhat similar arrangements are being made for the care of men discharged on account of nervous and mental disorders. During the first year of the war, over 20,000 men were rejected from the army on account of some form of nervous or mental defect. It is an unusually delicate and difficult task to attempt to reach and assist many of these men, and doubtless thousands of those who have been rejected after a short term of service in the cantonments will not need or will escape any follow-up arrangements which may now be made. Of course many of these men were rejected for what might be called from the point of view both of the individual and the army, prophylactic reasons—not that they were in immediate danger of breakdown but because they were of a sufficiently well-defined type to make it more than likely that they would collapse under the strain of active service.

It is a fact of sinister significance, not widely appreciated, that the insanity rate of men in the army increases nearly 300 per cent in time of war. Facilities for the treatment of war neuroses are being developed at the army hospital at Plattsburg, New York. It has come to be recognized that nervous breakdown in the service does not differ essentially from the same conditions observed in civil life except that the ordeals of battle and the trying sights and sounds which the soldier experiences are the aggravating cause. The same methods of treatment which have been found to be successful with civilian patients are applied with good results in the army. Work and play which enlists the mental activity of the patient and diverts his attention into wholesome and constructive channels is found to be an essential factor of the treatment. The insane, who are in quite a different category, are treated at a different hospital at Fort Porter, New York. Those who are incurable are discharged from the army when relatives or the state hospitals of their native state will undertake their proper care. The remainder of the incurable cases are transferred to St. Elizabeth's Home, Washington, D. C.

Although the proportion of blind is far smaller than is commonly

supposed, unexcelled arrangements for their treatment, teaching and social and economic supervision during the remainder of their lives have already been made. Blinded soldiers are sent to General Hospital No. 7 at Baltimore, where the military hospital and school is located on a beautiful private estate loaned for the purpose. Through a special appropriation establishing the Red Cross Institute for the Blind, facilities for after-care which would not be possible under the army law have been provided. The Federal Board for Vocational Education is coöperating with the arrangements for industrial training. All this work and the administration of additional private gifts is under the single and competent direction of the officer of the Surgeon General's staff directly charged with the work for the blind. Here again complete data as to the family background is necessary and is being provided through the coöperation of the Red Cross Home Service workers. Following the example of successful work in England, a member of the family of each blind man is taken to the Baltimore School and given much of the same training that the blind man receives. This insures the essential understanding on the part of the family of the blind man's difficulties, limitations, capabilities, needs and ambitions. Through its knowledge of the home and family background, the home service section in the place of the man's residence is often able to advise as to which member of the family should be chosen for this devoted service.

The Red Cross Institute for the Blind will also make possible the establishment of a central selling and purchasing agency for the products of those men who cannot re-enter factories, while for those who can be trained to take up commercial life, typewriters and special stenographic machines will be provided. The institute will further make possible additional facilities for the production of literature for the blind, arrangements for the after-care and supervision of the men returned to industry, the provision of special workshops and home work and the formation of a savings association to encourage thrift, especially among those receiving the very liberal compensation and insurance benefits which the law provides for the blind.

With these and other groups of disabled soldiers, the Red Cross through its home service organization is working in close coöperation with the army medical authorities to give every possible assistance in the measures designed to ascertain the exact nature of the dis-

bility, and to provide for the most effective treatment and after-care. Here again the most effective care of the patient demands a clear knowledge of his family background and the continued support and relief of his dependents. Information as to a soldier's personal, community and family history is often of the highest value in determining whether, for example, he is suffering from an acute condition of real shell shock or whether the nervous collapse is but the manifestation of a chronic defect which existed previous to the period of military service. Not only does this distinction involve a difference in responsibility of the government for his compensation and after-care but it may well mean an important difference in the line of treatment prescribed. The trained social workers now enlisted with the Red Cross will often be able to supply this necessary information or, under expert guidance, will be able to obtain it promptly. In other instances the hospital authorities will be ready and willing to discharge soldiers to the care of their families for convalescence if they can be assured that a wholesome mental atmosphere exists in the home. Reliance will more and more be placed upon the home service workers to inform the medical authorities whether the mother is hysterical, the father alcoholic, either or both unable to comprehend the nature of the boy's ailment and to provide the wholesome environment required for his return to health, or whether opposite and wholly favorable conditions permit his convalescence at home.

Consideration of the classes requiring special hospital and institutional treatment must not blind us to the fact that even when taken altogether these form a small proportion of the total. Out of all the men who are discharged from the army on account of wounds or disease, probably 90 per cent will be able to go back to their usual life after a relatively short period of hospital treatment and without special measures for physical reconstruction and vocational training. A few weeks, or a few months at most, in the hospital will suffice for these men, many of whom are suffering from more or less familiar chronic medical conditions. The need for measures of after-care for this great group must be not overlooked. They will not have received the same advantages of special instruction and incitement to a constructive future which their more seriously disabled comrades will obtain at the hands of vocational counsellors and other friends, official and unofficial. Their return to their communities, and perhaps an over-zealous effort to return to the same work in a

factory or office, may cause an unlooked-for breakdown, bringing on a resultant family problem. Therefore the Red Cross Home Service and other relief agencies must, at least for a limited period, be prepared to safeguard and assist these men and their families.

In the last analysis, the success of the whole national scheme of "soldiers' civil re-establishment," as the Canadians call it, depends upon the intelligent support of public opinion. An hysterical tendency on the part of the community to pamper the returned soldier with trivial entertainment, or the offer of immediate employment, really resting upon a basis of charity or exploitation, may have the most untoward effect in demoralizing the ex-soldier's will and character. In a few years, when the too-ephemeral desire to help the wounded hero has been forgotten, and the man faces the competition of able-bodied workmen in a labor market again over-supplied, he may have good reason to blame the public which gave him the wrong kind of reception. True friendship for the disabled soldier can still accompany the utmost expression of real gratitude and respect. It is best for the soldier himself in the long run that the community should expect him to continue doing his duty by making good as a civilian. Employers will help and not hinder the success of the soldier's effort to make his own way in the world if they will find and reserve jobs which disabled men can hold on the basis of skill and competence alone, and will not attract them, by unthinking offers of unsuitable jobs, to neglect their opportunities for the thorough training which will make them permanently independent in spite of their handicap. It will be one of the most considerable by-products of the war if we may dare hope that the social attitude toward the crippled and disabled shall change from one of lavish and ill-guided charity, to an insistence on a square deal which shall give the injured more than the average chance to make good, and shall demand that he make the best of that opportunity. If also the interest in the men disabled in this business of the war should carry over into the field of peaceful industry, and enforce adequate laws and provisions for the prevention of work accidents and the rehabilitation of the immensely greater number of workmen injured in factories every year, this could indeed be counted as another social victory of far-reaching consequence, arising directly from our embarkation upon the present great adventure.

THE WAR AND NAVY DEPARTMENTS COMMISSIONS ON TRAINING CAMP ACTIVITIES

By RAYMOND B. FOSDICK,

Chairman, Commissions on Training Camp Activities.

There was nowhere for the men to go and forget the weariness, the homesickness, the loneliness, that prevailed all along the Border when our troops were concentrated there in the summer of 1916. There was nowhere to go and get away even for a short time from the monotony of drill and the almost unbearable heat. There was no organized entertainment, no decent diversion. There was not even a book to read, or the facilities for writing a letter home. There were the small border towns with saloons and red light districts for their sole attractions, and from lack of decent diversions, the men gravitated there in their off time. Such was the situation I found, when Secretary Baker asked me to go down and make a survey of the soldiers' environment for the War Department. It is no wonder that there was an ingrowing staleness and tendency to mental and moral disintegration. It is no wonder an appallingly large percentage of the troops there were at some time or other disabled through personal immorality. There was a great need for something wholesome to compete with the only forms of diversion to which the men had access, and out of this need grew the War Department Commission on Training Camp Activities.

Emerson's saying, that we never realize a truth fully until we have contended against it was fully exemplified, then, in the attitude of the War and Navy Departments toward the environment of our soldiers and sailors from the very first of their mobilization for the present war. The deadly effects of suddenly narrowing the whole life and thought of the naturally versatile and many-sided young American man, down to the inexorable round of military duties, had been thoroughly demonstrated. Moreover the men had heretofore volunteered their services; now they were to be drafted. The President and Secretary Baker determined that new social conditions must be created in connection with the military environment; camp life must be made wholesome and attractive. Already existing

agencies were to be asked to come in and coöperate, and wherever necessary these were to be supplemented by the government direct. The function of the War Department Commission, was the coördination of all these agencies, that there might be no friction or overlapping on the one hand, or unfilled needs on the other. A corresponding Navy Commission was created at the request of Secretary Daniels.

By a comprehensive recreational and educational program, the commissions have surrounded our fighters with such clean and wholesome influences as they conceived a democracy to owe to its fighting men. The undertaking was experimental. It was perhaps the largest social program ever undertaken. It was the first time a government had ever combined educational and ethical elements with disciplinary forces, in the production of a fighting organism. No one knew exactly what the outcome would be. New precedents had to be set. When one considers that the hundreds of thousands of men who began pouring into the army and navy camps had been suddenly wrenched loose from all their familiar social contacts of families, friends, clubs, schools, theatres, athletics, libraries, etc., to enter the bewildering military environment, the need of some rationalizing force becomes apparent if there is to be that *sine qua non* of fighting efficiency—contentment.

Broadly, the work of the commissions has fallen under two general heads. The first embraces a vast positive program set up to compete with the twin evils of alcohol and prostitution. The more perfect its development, the less the necessity for the other phase of the organization—the suppressive work. Working together to assist in supplying the former are the agencies that, already in existence, have been accorded official recognition and placed under the direction of the commissions.

THE CLUB LIFE OF THE CANTONMENT

The club life of the cantonment, for instance, is in the capable hands of the Young Men's Christian Association, the Knights of Columbus, and the Jewish Welfare Board. With its wide experience in army and navy work, the Y. M. C. A. was particularly well equipped to furnish recreational and social facilities within the camps, and it has made good use of the money privately subscribed for this purpose. In each of the national army cantonments, there

are from nine to fourteen "Y" buildings, and a somewhat smaller number in each of the smaller national guard camps. The Knights of Columbus organization has fewer buildings, but it is well represented and its functions are practically the same as those of the Y. M. C. A. The Jewish Welfare Board has not buildings in all of the camps up to the present time, and frequently holds its religious meetings in the building of another faith. One of the stipulations of the commissions was that no meeting was to be held in any of these buildings to which all the troops were not invited, regardless of religion. In fact the way in which all creeds and denominations are coming together is one of the miracles of modern democracy taking place within the camps.

The buildings brought into the camps by these organizations are so distributed, as to be easily available to the greatest numbers of men. A typical hut or bungalow presents a reassuring picture for those who have fears as to the social well-being of the uniformed men. Groups of men will always be found there occupying the rocking chairs and big arm chairs, smoking, playing games, or reading. A victrola and a piano are included in the equipment of each building and the men make full use of them. Around the entire wall space writing desks are built in, and these are never entirely deserted. It is estimated that more than a million and a half letters daily are written by the soldiers and sailors on the stationery that is furnished free by the Y. M. C. A. alone. The men soon learn that the building secretary is available day or night, and is not only willing but anxious to serve them as counsellor or friend.

Besides the Sunday religious services held in the auditorium which is a part of the equipment of each social building, moving picture shows, illustrated lectures, Bible classes, concerts, amateur or imported dramatic performances and indoor athletics provide attraction for each night in the week in each building. These are in addition to the programs provided through the large Y. M. C. A. auditorium which in the larger army camps has a seating capacity of 2,000 to 3,000—and the liberty theatre entertainments.

Much of that intangible "spirit of the army" is engendered in these buildings. I dropped into a Knights of Columbus hall one evening at the hour when the building was practically deserted, in time to witness a young Italian evidently as yet unfamiliar with his environment, rocking back and forth in his chair seemingly in great

anguish of body or mind. A young soldier left the group around the stove as soon as he noticed him and went up and began talking to him. The youth shook his head uncomprehendingly. Gradually the others gathered around him solicitously but it was apparent that he understood no English. They thought that he was ill and attempted to pick him up bodily and carry him to the hospital, and then he produced a letter,—the evident cause of his distress. It was in Italian. A hasty survey showed that the building secretary was absent. One of the men went to the telephone. I do not know whom he called up but the door was opened soon and another young fellow joined the group. They handed him the letter which he read, announcing that the recruit's father was dying in a town halfway across the state.

"There's a train in twenty-five minutes—let's get him on that. I'll call up headquarters," one of the men was saying while the newcomer addressed the Italian in his own tongue—but he only shook his head, thrusting his hands into his pockets and bringing them out empty with a shrug. Carfare was a small matter. Within five minutes, the little group had pooled their loose change and one of them was at the telephone again calling up headquarters, to arrange for a pass out of camp, while the others escorted their friend in need down the railroad track toward the station.

The camp clubs promote democracy and they also effectively bridge the gulf that lies between the recruit and his environment. By giving men a chance to express themselves, they help to preserve their moral relationships to society. Among the means of self-expression furnished by the Y. M. C. A. is "Trench and Camp," the soldiers' newspaper in which is chronicled all the happenings of the week. The paper is published in each army camp, and now appears in one naval training station under the name of "Afloat and Ashore."

IMPORTANCE OF THE LIBRARIES WITHIN THE CAMPS

Another important agency coöperating in this work within the camps, is the American Library Association, to which has been delegated the task of solving the problem of the soldiers' and sailors' reading matter. This organization has undertaken the seemingly impossible task of seeing that there is always a good book within reach of the fighting man. A special library building has been

erected or is in the course of being erected in each of the army cantonments. These are in charge of trained librarians. The entire work is carried on under the general supervision of Dr. Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress, who has been appointed General Director of the Library War Service. That the public appreciates the importance of this phase of the work, is evidenced by the fact that when in September, 1917, the public was asked for a million dollars for the conduct of the work, the fund was over-subscribed more than a half-million; and in March, 1918, when the big book drive was started with a goal of two million volumes, more than three million attractive readable books were received at the time set for the closing of the campaign and more were coming in every day.

The libraries are conducted along lines similar to those in towns, but the books are taken out with less formality and a widespread circulation is promoted in various ways. Besides the central building in each camp, branches are maintained in the Y. M. C. A., Knights of Columbus buildings, the hostess houses, base hospitals, and in the mess halls and barracks, and books may be taken from any of these at any hour of the day or evening.

It is natural that a visitor's first question to the librarian should be "What do the men read?" The number of books circulated, generally, show that fiction holds first place, which is natural enough. A good story helps to tide over long, lonely evenings, when otherwise the soldier would be a natural prey to homesickness. But there is an almost equally large demand for books on pure and applied science. Men are doing a surprisingly large amount of studying and reading up in preparation for promotion. There are many sorts of specialties in demand in the army and navy today, and books on various kinds of machinery, gasoline engines, aeroplanes, electricity, chemistry and U-boat engineering are greatly in demand. An army camp is a cross-section of masculine American life, with all grades and classes represented, and the books in circulation in one day in any camp library will offer an interesting study, and will range all the way from a catechism, requested by a negro trooper, to the profoundest philosophical treatise. A librarian told me lately of a soldier coming to him with the request for "something interesting in the way of modern Grecian history."

"I think you will like this," said the librarian taking down a new book about the Balkan war. "Oh, *that!*" said the soldier. "I don't

want that. I fought all through *that war*," and he slipped his shirt off his shoulder, displaying a great scar. "I want something that I don't know all about."

The library work in camp is linked up definitely with the educational program being carried on direct by the commissions. In many divisions gathered in by the first draft, the percentage of men who could not speak a word of English was appalling. In the Syracuse camp, there was one regiment who could not understand the commands given them. Men from the Kentucky and Tennessee mountains could not read or write. In every camp in the United States classes in English, French, spelling, reading, writing and primary arithmetic were started, and are now being conducted. Two hundred thousand men are studying the French language at the present time, in classes run under the direction of the Commissions on Training Camp Activities. Vocational training classes are being carried forward; in fact, in every camp there are classes on certain evenings of every week representing all subjects from first lessons in spoken French to lessons in electrical engineering. In this connection, the educational machinery of the Y. M. C. A. is being largely utilized. Text-books of all sorts are procurable through the librarians, and those that are not immediately available are purchased.

Instructors are recruited from all sources. Men from the ranks are teaching French and other subjects. Men and women from near-by towns volunteer their services for certain evenings each week, and officers and chaplains are also assisting. It was recently estimated that more than 100,000 men were enrolled in our educational classes, and the number is growing.

OBJECT AND USEFULNESS OF THE HOSTESS HOUSE

The Young Women's Christian Association, by establishing the hostess houses in camp, has solved one of the biggest problems with which military authorities have had to contend,—that of women visitors to camp. In the old days they had to stand on windy corners, or parade the often wet and muddy streets: there was no place for them to go. Now they can go to this homelike spot and talk with their men friends or relatives amid pleasant surroundings. There have already been seventy-six hostess houses erected within the army and navy camps, and more are in the course of construction.

The hostess house is usually built near the entrance of the can-

tonment or training station, and is placed so as to be easily accessible to visitors. The buildings are like large bungalows, and are a decided ornament to the camps. They vary in size and architecture according to the varying needs, but their general plans are similar. They were designed and the interior decorations planned entirely by women. The "big room" of each house, which is a large, homelike living-room, has a large chimney, usually in the middle, where in the double fireplaces log fires burn when they are needed. There is found a parcel-checking room, a rest-room for women, and a fully-equipped nursery on the main floor of the hostess house. The rear of the building is usually devoted to a cafeteria for catering not only to the women on visiting days, but to the soldiers themselves all during the week. The upstairs is devoted to living quarters for the resident secretaries. Some of the women from the hostess house meet every arriving train to make sure that no woman is left to wander aimlessly around the camp. The commissions have asked the Travelers' Aid Society to place their representatives in the stations near the camps, and these work in coöperation with the hostess house women in assisting visitors to the camp.

On visiting days, the hostess house is filled with groups of soldiers and civilians. Some of the old army officers did not like the idea of the hostess house at first. "Send along anything you want to," they told the commissions, "but keep these women away." However, no personal hardship or discomforts can keep them away, so long as there is a chance of their seeing their men who are soon to go to the front. They come by the thousands. They come penniless, oftentimes. They come with stories of misery and want. The hostess house is a recognition of their rights to come and the hostess house is playing a large part in conserving the camp morale. The officers no less than the men are coming to look upon it as indispensable. Often now we hear from those who were loudest in objecting to the idea. They say that they are being discriminated against; that some other camp is getting a second hostess house or a special house for taking care of colored women visitors while they have only one. There will certainly never be another military post without its hostess house.

The Recreation Association of America was asked to organize the social and recreational life of the communities, adjacent to the training camps, for the benefit of the men in uniform. Working

under the name of the War Camp Community Service, it has placed trained workers in two hundred towns and cities and has mobilized the hospitality of churches, clubs, lodges, and other organizations, as well as large numbers of individuals. In a word it has aroused the community to its sense of responsibility toward the men.

The civilian public comes into contact with the soldier and the sailor for the most part when they are on leave. It is this phase of their soldiering in which the commissions take the greatest interest, for their reactions to the removal of restraint are apt to be the antithesis of those under the restrictions of camp life. Discipline, character, and ideals must stand the strain of an afternoon or a week-end away from the cantonment, for on those largely depend the physical welfare of the army and navy. Thus, it is obvious that the men must have "somewhere to go." There has been a gratifying response to the demand made on the civilian population in their behalf. The towns and cities adjacent to the camps have assimilated the soldier and sailor population in a remarkably effective manner. Instead of patronage, the men have been given genuine hospitality, and they have responded in kind. That this has been brought about by a national society working along almost scientifically exact lines, is a striking commentary on the personality that may go with the efficient organization of social work. Their well-tested theories and principles had to be applied to an entirely new set of conditions.

The personal hospitality of those who have entertained the soldiers and sailors, is one of the most heartening results of the work of the commissions, for it has developed closer ties between the men and the communities and acted as a conservator of home ideals. The war camp community workers as well as the workers back of the hostess house idea have found that one of the greatest sociological needs in training camp life, is the opportunity to see and talk with women. The boys want the feminine society they were used to back home; many of them want a bit of mothering; and the people of this country are doing a great work in seeing that they get this feminine society of the right kind.

These are some of the agencies whose already organized forces are aligned by the commissions. There is hardly a civic or social organization in a war camp community or within reach of service men anywhere, that is not coöperating actively in some branch of the commissions' work.

SOCIAL PROGRAM WITHIN THE CAMPS

But there were certain necessities that early became apparent in the completion of the program. The government wanted to send a singing army to France. From time immemorial troops have gone into battle singing. But they have not sung always in tune or as a whole. Song, even the random sort, has a powerful effect on the morale of the troops, and we began to visualize the effect of our million and a half men being trained to sing correctly and in large groups. Accordingly, we have placed trained song leaders in the national army and national guard camps, and in the naval and aviation centers, and in many smaller units. This innovation met with scepticism in certain quarters. The relationship between singing and fighting was not apparent to the more matter-of-fact, but, as I see it, no other single phase of the program has made a greater contribution to discipline. Just what is the relationship? It is too intangible a thing to be analyzed. It deals with the essence of discipline—and back of that—morale, and one must witness a "sing," where from ten to twenty thousand men lift up their voices all together, in some old familiar song that has become in a way a part of their national life, to understand its real significance. Our men are singing in France today, in groups or in units, and we have had an undeniable demonstration of the effect of music in the army and navy.

And then there was the matter of athletics which no existing organization seemed equipped to administrate in the army and navy. Educational and recreative athletics seemed vital in the development of the whole man. Athletics offers a legitimate expression for the healthy animal spirit which, when put up, will invariably assert itself in some form of lawlessness. Important as this is, the greatest function of athletics is to educate the men into better fighters. Men of skill and experience have been selected by the Commissions on Training Camp Activities, to take charge of this work. Among them are some of the foremost athletic coaches of the country.

Nearly all of the sports known to American life are carried on in the camps, and all of the men are not only permitted, but are encouraged to participate freely. A continually-growing emphasis is being placed especially in the army upon the semi-military sports. Trench-rushing, wall-scaling, grenade-throwing and boxing are all

being promoted. Boxing is conducted under the advisory direction of the most eminent exponents of the art,—men calculated to arouse the enthusiasm of our fighters in the making. It is taught both as a sport and as a part of the curriculum of a soldier. I have seen a boxing instructor stand up before a group of two thousand men and put them through a series of evolutions that would later be tried out in sparring contests, and eventually be invaluable to them in hand-to-hand encounters out in no man's land, for there is a close relationship between boxing and bayonet fighting. I have also seen games of soccer in which four hundred players took part, and soccer, too, is one of the forms of sport which has a close parallel to fighting. While playing it, a man must be ready constantly to strike the ball with either foot. In this way he naturally acquires the short gait and balance that will serve him in good stead when he comes to crossing furrowed and shell-torn stretches of devastated land. It is a highly exhilarating game combining the maximum of exercise and recreation with valuable training.

Besides the better known sports, such as baseball and football, there is a great variety of games such as volley ball, push ball, medicine ball, cross-country running, tennis, fencing and swimming. Laughter-provoking games are played regularly by great numbers of soldiers and sailors. This is important, for good humor is one of the vital elements of discipline. The men get a wild sort of joy out of "swat tag," prisoner's base, duck-on-the-rock, and such childish games as promote good fellowship at the same time developing self-control, agility, mental alertness and initiative. It must not be forgotten that all this is a part of the military training. Muscle must have behind it driving force and control for the winning of battles.

Supplying the means for theatrical entertainments is an obvious part of the program which has undertaken to create a rational social life for the men. Every army camp now has its well-equipped modern liberty theatre building, and the best Broadway attractions are being booked throughout the circuit so that the men have all they would get in New York. The national army camps' theatres have a seating capacity of 2,500 to 3,000, and the national guard camps seat 1,500. The naval training stations do not have the regular liberty theatres, but they do not lack for high-class theatrical entertainment. Many of the stations have theatres that compare favorably with the

best of those in large cities. Stations such as those at San Diego, Gulfport, and Hampton Roads, had buildings already provided in the exposition buildings that were already on the grounds, when the government took them over. These have been remodeled and adequately equipped for entertainment purposes. The marine barracks at Quantico, Virginia, has in its theatre scenery and a stage which are duplicates of those in Keith's Theatre at Washington. This building seats 5,000. In the marine camp at Paris Island, South Carolina, there is an auditorium seating 2,500. The station at Great Lakes has a large and complete theatre building. The only liberty theatre outside of a camp or cantonment is in Norfolk. Here, the Navy Commission has arranged to have the city armory fitted with stage and scenery. Although the theatrical situation has not been handled in the same uniform fashion as in the army camps, no naval training station has been neglected in the matter of adequate entertainment.

The government bore all of the initial expense of these theatrical buildings, but made no appropriation for the operation of the circuit. In order to raise the necessary funds for financing companies on the camp circuits, "smileage" books, exchangeable for admission to the liberty theatres or other charge entertainments in camp, were placed on sale to the public. "Smileage" sale corresponds exactly to the advance sale of theatre tickets,—good until used. The admission charge to the theatrical entertainments is usually from ten to twenty-five cents, with a few reserved seats sold for fifty cents.

The War Department Commission is doing more than entertain the soldier; it is helping him to entertain himself. Through a committee on military entertainment, dramatic directors are now being sent into the camps to train the men in organizing their own dramatic talent. Thus, with their song coaches organizing glee clubs and other musical units, the companies going over will be more self-sufficient as to their leisure time recreation. Nothing gives the men more joy than the forms of entertainment in which they themselves actively engage.

Not only the liberty theatres and other similar buildings, but the Y. M. C. A. and the Knights of Columbus halls are equipped with the latest type of production machines for giving continuous performance of moving picture shows. The War Camp Motion Picture Bureau, under direction of the commissions, has the co-

operation of the National Board of Review, in the selection and censoring of the best and newest pictures from the various producers. Arrangement has been made through the Y. M. C. A. whereby films are supplied to vessels in the fleet.

STEPS TAKEN TOWARDS VICE SUPPRESSION

The young American's instinctive preference for sound and healthy occupations and recreations, has been met on every side by all this positive, constructive work. Strict repressive measures have at the same time been taken against alcohol and prostitution, and vice and the opportunities for intemperance—those factors deadly to military efficiency have been reduced to a minimum.

The Law Enforcement and the Social Hygiene Divisions of the commissions' work, have assumed the responsibility of stamping out these evils. The Law Enforcement Division solicits the coöperation of war camp communities and their various public-spirited organizations, in carrying out the special Congressional enactment for clean conditions wherever uniformed men in any numbers go to spend their off time. It also utilizes every other form of law enforcement machinery, state, federal, and military, for effectively cleaning up and keeping clean the military environs. At the instigation of the commissions, California, Arkansas, Minnesota, Texas, Virginia, and Maryland have created state welfare commissions and have appointed executive secretaries to carry on the work of vice repression.

The Law Enforcement Division has created a section to deal with the problem of the camp followers, who always spring up by the thousands in war camp communities drawn by the lure of the uniform and the stories of fabulous salaries paid. This section aims to provide safeguards for these women and girls, many of whom are forced into paths of prostitution, by the unstandardized commercial and living conditions; to aid in securing laws against prostitution and street walking; to obtain institutional care for the feeble-minded; and to provide reformatories to prevent such women having to be thrown into over-crowded and unhealthy county jails while awaiting trial. The municipalities are taking over a part of this work and making appropriations to cover the salaries of women patrols and police-women, as well as the up-keeps of reformatories and detention houses. The responsibility is a civic one, and in some cases the city has been ready to acknowledge it as soon as the commissions have

pointed out just where it lay. In other cases, the expense is being divided.

The Social Hygiene Division is educational in its function, having been created for the purpose of informing the public, both men and women, as well as army and navy, as to the necessity of combating prostitution and the resultant venereal diseases. The section devoted to the education of soldiers, sailors, and others in the service, has reached millions of men with lectures illustrated with official stereopticon slides and with informative pamphlets. The section on men's work seeks the aid of prominent citizens in bringing about local reforms, and in the revival of laws which have never been enforced, or the passing of new laws in support of the government's program against vice and liquor. The Section of Women's Work was planned to bring the women of the country to a sense of their responsibility, in the big nation-wide campaign for clean camps and clean communities.

The war is going to be won by manpower. We have profited by the experience of other nations and have reduced to that small inescapable minimum, the percentage of men placed on the ineffect-ive list through immorality. It is no longer news that eighty-nine red light districts have been closed and the venereal disease rate of our army and navy has been reduced more than fifty per cent since the beginning of the war. These are the most obvious achievements in the conservation of manhood and manpower. In the last analy-sis, the whole suppressive program but prepares the way for the building up of a fighting force with such ideals as will stand the strain of the great encounter on the other side and bring them back better citizens for the experience. To make men fit for fighting—and after—is just plain efficiency plus.

MAKING THE CAMPS SAFE FOR THE ARMY

BY LIEUT. GEORGE J. ANDERSON,

Director, Section on Vice and Liquor Control, Commission on Training Camp Activities.

"I am determined that our new training camps, as well as the surrounding zones within an effective radius, shall not be places of temptation and peril."

Into these words, written six weeks after America's entry into the world conflict, the Secretary of War condensed a policy not only strikingly new in American preparations, but also in the military history of the world. They were included in a letter written on May 26 to the governors of all the states. Essentially they only gave expression to the conviction which had been previously incorporated in the legislation known as sections 12 and 13 of the Selective Draft Act. The sentence gave notice to the nation and the world that the new American Army, so far as the efforts of the War Department could be made effective, was to be in every sense morally fit for the high cause in which the United States had just enlisted. Secretary Baker further had expressed the policy in these words:

Our responsibility in this matter is not open to question. We can not allow these young men, most of whom will have been drafted to service, to be surrounded by a vicious and demoralizing environment, nor can we leave anything undone which will protect them from unhealthy influences and crude forms of temptation. Not only have we an inescapable responsibility in this matter to the families and communities from which these young men are selected, but, from the standpoint of our duty and our determination to create an efficient army, we are bound, as a military necessity, to do everything in our power to promote the health and conserve the vitality of the men in the training camps.

The policy had not been chosen at random in the first place: as with so many other factors involved in our entry into the war, we had the benefit and the experience of our Allies and of our foes as well. Publicity has been given to the bitter lesson of one of the allied armies, which, during the first eighteen months of the war, saw more of its men out of action through the ravages of venereal disease than from all other physical causes combined. A Vienna specialist has estimated that at one time and another an equivalent of sixty Austrian divisions have been on the non-effective list for

the same reason. In addition to these and many similar facts, the War Department was in possession of data gathered as a result of our own mobilization on the Mexican border in 1916. At that time each division commander had been a law to himself in the matter of the vice and liquor problems, and their policies had ranged from extreme liberality to strictest repression. The results of a comparative investigation gave unmistakable proof that the latter method insured not only the healthiest but the most effective troops. Above all were those high moral considerations, which are so tersely spoken in the Secretary's words quoted above, and which fitted so pertinently the course of an administration always hewing close to the line of practical ideals.

Into the care and keeping of the War Department Commission on Training Camp Activities, itself symbolic of the broad ideal upon which this policy was based, was entrusted the responsibility for making the wishes of the administration a reality. During the spring and summer of 1917, a small group of men specially trained in the social hygiene movement were operating in the field under the direct supervision of Mr. Raymond B. Fosdick, chairman of the commission, whose own experience with this problem had made him a peculiarly effective choice for the leadership of the commission. As the scope of the mobilization increased with the fall weeks, it was seen early in October that the work must be specially organized and enlarged. Thus was evolved the organization of the Law Enforcement Division. The appointment as its director of Basecom Johnson, who had been counsel for the American Social Hygiene Association, and who scored notable successes against commercialized vice in California, and more particularly in the wiping out of the notorious "Barbary Coast" of San Francisco, was a particularly happy and efficient one. It guaranteed a practical and yet sympathetic handling of the new policy, as yet only dimly realized by the army and scarcely at all by the public at large.

In the Surgeon General's Office, the appointment of Major William F. Snow, M. R. C., also an officer of the American Social Hygiene Association, being at that time its executive secretary, to be in charge of the Section on Combating Venereal Diseases, had laid the ground work for extensive army co-operation. Through his efforts, a group of lieutenants in the Sanitary Corps were commissioned and sent out into the field in the vicinity of thirty-two can-

tonments. Under the direction of Major Johnson, they began a systematic and fruitful campaign; first, to secure the stimulation of law enforcement against both prostitution and the illegal liquor traffic, and, second, to study the medical aspects of the problems so far as the army was involved.

To this end they worked with every possible agency and utilized every available weapon, federal, state, county, municipal and military. They acted primarily neither as vice investigators nor as prosecuting assistants, though able to assume either function temporarily should the occasion require, but devoted their energy to securing results through designated officials, and to keeping the War Department informed of the conditions prevailing in their territory. Moreover, they acted as especially effective evangelists for the new gospel of civic decency and military efficiency involved in the policy which they were sent out to execute. So effectively have they operated that, at the present time in more than two hundred cities of the United States, the officials are actively coöperating in the most drastic methods of vice suppression, and, in many instances, in methods which were directly contrary not only to the long established habit of the community but to the private convictions of the citizens themselves. Such is the power of patriotism wedded to the ideal of a great cause.

THE DRIVE ON ALCOHOL

I wish to discuss first the lesser of the two evils, prostitution and alcoholism, so far as the military viewpoint is concerned. The liquor problem had been considered in the enactment of the now famous Section 12 already referred to. After several subsequent revisions, each of which only drew the regulations more tightly, the act provides essentially the following: A dry zone of five miles around every military camp, where two hundred and fifty or more men are being trained for a period of thirty days or longer, except that within the limits of incorporated cities and towns, the zone is made one-half mile, and further that it shall be an offence not merely to sell, but to give liquor to members of the military forces within the United States or its possessions, even in private homes.

In this way, the civilian offender or agent was taken care of. Within the military régime, the soldier who was found under the influence or in the possession of liquor was subject to the usual dis-

cipline of the army, and, in addition, it was later provided that if he were a party, even as purchaser, to transactions which Section 12 sought to prevent, he was also liable to court-martial. With the pressure thus made heavy, both from within and without, the crusade to protect the new army from the effects of alcoholism progressed. So far as it is a health problem, the sentiment against liquor has for a long time been more or less pronounced in the army. Medical officers, whose opinions and attitude on prostitution may have been somewhat antiquated, were quite definitely opposed to the effects of an evil, which, in their minds, rendered the subject not only less fit for military duty, but even more definitely exposed to the ravages of venereal disease.

The representatives of the Law Enforcement Division, however, did not stop merely with the use of Section 12 and its enforcement through the Department of Justice. They invoked every local reinforcement which existed on the statute books against illegal liquor selling, in some instances providing penalties even more severe than the federal act, and, if necessary, sought to add still more effective legislation, both state and municipal. In this sense, the prohibitive effort has had no more powerful ally than patriotism and the appeal to "protect the boys in the service."

A few concrete illustrations will show the lengths to which some communities have gone to make good their assurances in this regard and to place the welfare of the army above the immediate desires or interests of the citizens. In Texas, for example, a special legislative session placed around every camp an absolutely dry zone of ten miles with no exceptions for cities and towns. When it is realized that this involved the welfare of over a quarter million troops and over forty military points, it will be seen that the later passage of the state-wide prohibition act was almost reduced to a generous superfluity. Louisiana followed the same example with a twenty-five mile zone around its single cantonment at Camp Beauregard. In addition to state-wide actions of this sort, there have been many effective local methods of defeating the "boot-legger." In some cities the liquor dealers, either by voluntary agreement or by municipal ordinance, have forbidden the sale of any liquor in packages to be consumed off the premises. Hotels have voluntarily suppressed the sale of alcoholic beverages above the main floor. In the best cafés liquors are not served at tables where members of the military

forces are seated, even though they may be accompanied by civilians. And all over the country the life of the "boot-legger,"—that surreptitious outlaw of the alley and dark corner, who has been naturally the chief source of supply,—has been made miserable under the combined assault of all sets of authorities, federal, state, local and military.

So the unrelenting crusade has gone on. It has not achieved the impossible, but it has scored an undeniable success. Statistically and otherwise it has demonstrated that prohibition can prohibit, if applied continuously, and without fear or favor. In some of the largest commands, the arrests for drunkenness have been reduced almost to the vanishing point; in short, the results upon the whole have justified the following comment by an editorial writer in the *Military Surgeon*:

If this war has proved anything, it is that prohibition in the hands of military authorities can be, and has been, enforced. Since the civil authorities realized that the Army proposed to carry out the extra cantonment zone law against liquor and corruption, alcoholism and its results have practically ceased to be a depressing factor in army health and army discipline.* A drunken soldier is rarely seen, and alcoholism assumes a steadily dwindling importance in medical statistics.¹

THE ANCIENT AND UNNECESSARY EVIL

Coming now to the main point of attack, prostitution and the evils of commercialized vice, we face a much more difficult and much

* Even more illuminating is this comment quoted from a report of the Judge Advocate General of the Army, making an analysis of recent courts-martial:

"A comparison of the part that drunkenness played in the criminal statistics of the Army during the first three months of this year as compared with the first three months of the war in 1917 shows a decrease in the number of crimes involving drunkenness. During the first three months of the war 5.31 per cent of the men who were tried by general court-martial were tried for offenses involving drunkenness, and during the first three months of this current year this percentage dropped to 2.71. In other words, proportionately only about one-half as many men are now being tried for offenses involving drunkenness as were tried for similar offenses a year ago."

The local viewpoint on this crusade may be deduced from the following excerpt from *The Post* of Houston, Texas, a city where the conditions in February last were such as to be largely in mind when the War Department applied to the Governor of Texas for remedial action:

"Is it really dry in Houston?" asks the inquisitive subscriber of Wharton. "Dry? Say, it is so dry that when a Houston man gets out of his bath, instead of using towels to dry himself he merely dusts himself with a whisk broom."

more universal problem. The foes, attacked by the War Department policy which I am discussing, are analogous to the two main enemies across the sea. Alcoholism and prostitution stand somewhat in the relation to each other of Austria and Germany, both powerful and dangerous, but the one far less capable of prolonged resistance than the other. With the liquor traffic practically out of the way, as in some southern states where prohibition was in effect even before the war, prostitution had entrenched itself behind strong barriers of custom, prejudice, politics and illicit gain. Moreover, lust for women is a much more universal and more intense appetite than the craving for alcohol, and while the latter is undoubtedly a stimulation both individually and commercially to prostitution, its removal in no wise defeats, though it may weaken, the forces of commercialized vice. Some of the most difficult situations with which we have had to contend in the latter respect have been in the "dry" community where vice defences have been built up over a long period of general patronage.

When the battle line on this front is surveyed after a year's conflict, the results are little short of amazing. In brief, during the past twelve months and more, parts of the United States have undergone what is tantamount to a social revolution in this respect. Old things have passed away, giving place to new. And as regards the vile business itself, prostitution has steadily undergone such rapid changes that constant readjustment in the lines of attack is necessary to meet the new conditions presented by those foes of military efficiency and public welfare, the prostitute, the pimp and the procurer.

When the department launched its forces against the problem last year, prostitution, particularly in the area where the majority of the troops were mobilized, was definitely established on three main lines—the segregated, or so-called red light, district; the scattered house of ill-fame in its various forms of parlor houses, call-in flats, assignation houses and the like, and the street-walking or clandestine woman.

The first line of defence, as it may be called, namely, the red light districts, was carried with a rush under the operation of Section 13 of the Selective Service Act, a companion weapon to Section 12. This legislation authorizes the Secretary of War to prohibit not only all such areas publicly or tacitly set aside for prostitution, but all

scattered resorts within an absolute ten mile zone of every military establishment. At the time of this writing, the first of August, ninety-one red light districts alone have been wiped out of existence through representatives of the Law Enforcement Division acting in coöperation with the Department of Justice. It should be added, however, that a large proportion of these have been abolished simply by local action after the request or pressure had come from representatives of the War Department. Some have been located nearly one hundred miles from a military camp and have been suppressed in response to the argument that the community was a point in transit for troops, and that its existence imperiled not merely their welfare but the health of the young men not yet summoned to the new National Army. Even that Gibraltar of commercialized vice, notorious not only on this continent but abroad, the New Orleans district, which comprised twenty-four solid blocks given over to human degradation and lust and housing six to eight hundred women, has gone down with the rest.

As a result of these successes it may be stated that there is not now in the United States a red light district within the effective radius of any military establishment. More than that, the district itself has become an anachronism in American life, and the so-called segregation policy has been to all intents and purposes laid away in its burial shroud. Such is the victory of moral and military efficiency over the most brazen expression and dangerous form of commercialized vice.

The assault on prostitution's second line of defence has been almost as successful. Of course no such sweeping statement can be made in regard to the scattered resorts as applies to the red light districts, but in the camp communities, at least, their operation has become so dangerous and unprofitable an enterprise that it has been well-nigh abandoned in the retreat toward the third and most easily defended entrenchments.

The single clandestine prostitute, moving secretly from city to city and even changing her residence with significant frequency in each city, is now the main source of infection. Hotel appointments, made through the agency of porters and bell-boys, and automobile excursions into the countryside with the chauffeur acting as go-between, now represent the bulk of her business. It is to outwit these unscrupulous partners that the later methods of fighting commer-

cialized vice have been generally devised. Ordinances and statutes providing the severest penalties especially for those who act as procurers and go-betweens, and the use of both military and civil police with motorcycles and automobiles have increasingly served, though they cannot suppress the traffic entirely, to keep it at a significant minimum. The owners and keepers of hotels and rooming houses, who permit their premises to be used for assignation purposes, have been reached through the use of the now widely enacted injunction and abatement laws, and through special ordinances directed at the licensing of these establishments. In other words, the heavy hand of civil and military law has been felt not simply by the wandering delinquent, who sells her body for hire, but by all those who seek to profit from her wretched and difficult gain. In no respect, perhaps, has the suppression policy more strikingly vindicated itself than in its successful and repeated assaults against the secret salients of the clandestine scarlet woman.

RECONSTRUCTION AS WELL AS DESTRUCTION

So far I have described the purely destructive aspects of our warfare against vice and alcoholism. Out of its victories have come, however, the more attractive and more constructive services which are described in other pages. In the spring of this year, the work of the then-called Law Enforcement Division was entrusted to a subdivision under the name of the Section on Vice and Liquor Control, to which were added the Section on Women and Girls and the Section on Reformatories and Detention Houses, all three united to form the new and enlarged Law Enforcement Division, under the general direction of Major Bascom Johnson. Together they have moved forward to present a united and coherent front, which provides not merely for the drastic suppression of the offence, but the humane and sympathetic up-building of the offender.

In this work the Law Enforcement Division has had the invaluable support of the Surgeon General's Office and the Public Health Service, and all have moved on together toward the partial solution, at least, of a problem which men for centuries have either been so content, indifferent, or eager as to term insoluble. We hear very seldom now the old familiar phrases of "the necessary evil," or "changing human nature," or "turning back the history of six thousand years." In short, numbers of these same contented or

Indifferent citizens have come to understand that this great plague was evil, but not necessary; that humanity and not nature must be changed; and that in this regard, at least, the history of six thousand years is a long roll of error from which we now turn away to better things.

In offering a statement of this kind, it is only fair to respond to the natural demand for results which is dear to every Yankee heart. As evidence of our victories the venereal rate decreased 50 per cent for the American Army, and is the lowest known in the military history of the world. We can provide from the prophylactic statistics even more striking evidence of 50 per cent decrease in the exposures to infection within a month after law enforcement measures have been instituted in such widely separated and socially different communities as San Francisco, California; Des Moines, Iowa; Jacksonville, Florida. We offer further the even more convincing testimony,—an army that, generally speaking, goes forth to battle conscious of its own cleanliness and decency.

What I have written is only a small chapter in the by-products which have come out of the terrible and yet magnificent production of a nation equipping itself for war. Yet if we had done nothing more than to send across the seas to the aid of our Allies the cleanest army the world has ever seen, a host of fighting men who have been trained in an atmosphere true to the highest ideals of American life, we have proved ourselves fit to fight for the preservation of democracy. For if democracy has not made a man respect his own body, mind and soul, and that of his countrymen, be they man or woman, it has failed. And if it has instilled even the first seeds of this physical and spiritual self-respect, it has succeeded according to its truest tests.

WORK AMONG DELINQUENT WOMEN AND GIRLS

By HENRIETTA S. ADDITON,

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W. C. T. C. A.

"For the benefit of those who have forfeited their claims to the respect of the virtuous," reads the charter of a home for girls in one of our large eastern cities.

A well-known social worker describes case work as the art of making clear to the individual the nature of the predicament and what that predicament involves. It continues by showing a way or ways out of the trouble and it concludes by appealing to the motive that will help the person decide to master his predicament and carry out that decision. Until very recently case work as thus described could not possibly have been done for girls who had "lost their virtue" in a community composed largely of the virtuous. Only too well the "fallen women" were made to realize the nature of their predicament; there was no possible way out, for had they not "forfeited their claims," and no amount of motivation on the part of the social worker or good intention on the part of one who had "lost her honor" could find it for her. The inevitable followed, the "ruined girl" soon became a prostitute. Social agencies with case work standards evaded these cases where the way out was so very obscure, and the institutions to which she was referred were usually, like the one whose charter is quoted above, well-meaning; but smugly self-righteous, content to afford the girl shelter while the enormity of her offense was impressed upon her.

Of late years there has been a movement directed toward the prevention of sex offenses on the part of girls. Numerous national organizations, as well as local agencies in many places, are doing excellent work with girls who have not yet crossed the dead line, but once a girl has had sex experience she is rigidly excluded by them all.

But the girl problem has assumed a totally different aspect with the coming of the war. The concentration of a large number of young men in comparatively few places, the tendency of women to flock to the camp towns, the danger of the rapid spread of venereal disease, the unsettled social conditions in these towns, all contributed to force the government into this much shunned field of social work.

A Committee on Protective Work for Girls was appointed in September, 1917, by Mr. Raymond B. Fosdick, chairman of the War and Navy Departments Commission on Training Camp Activities. The original idea was to throw such safeguards around young girls as would prevent later delinquency. After six months of purely protective work it was found that the serious problem of the camp cities consisted in the already delinquent women and girls.

In April, 1918, the policy was changed and the Section on Women and Girls of the Law Enforcement Division was organized with Mrs. Jane Deeter Rippin in charge, and the section now concentrates on work with women and girls who are sex offenders. Eight supervisors have been appointed for the supervision and extension of this work. Under their direction are placed fixed post workers near the National Army and National Guard camps, Naval Training camps and stations, aviation camps, and in cities where a large number of troops are stationed. Trained women with previous experience in social work have been chosen for these positions.

The Section on Vice and Liquor Control (described elsewhere in this volume), of the Law Enforcement Division of the Commission on Training Camp Activities, has a local representative in every large city. The fixed post worker from the Section on Women and Girls aids him in securing the enforcement of laws against street walking and prostitution, especially assisting in preparation for the prosecution of these cases. When an arrest is made the woman in the case is turned over to her. If possible, an investigation is made before the case is heard in court so that the judge can base his decision on the needs of the particular case. Without this information his decision neither affords protection for society nor reformatory treatment for the girl. Much education of judges is needed, but there are a few who are willing to go into these cases deeply and thoroughly, and many others are teachable. Recently a girl of twenty-two was arrested for prostitution in a southern camp town. She claimed to have a father and mother in Indiana and said they would be glad to take her home. The fixed post worker asked that the girl be held until her family could be heard from and some plan made for the future. But the girl was appealing in her tears, so the judge suspended the sentence and told her to go home. About ten days after leaving she wrote a friend in the local jail that she had earned fifty dollars on her way north. There were a number of

soldiers on her train which was held up by a wreck. While waiting, she had gone to walk with the soldiers. There is no way of estimating how many may have been infected by her. The judge was shown this letter, as well as the attempt to reach her parents which was returned, marked "unable to locate." It was costly but effective education for him.

The Section on Women and Girls assists the Public Health Service in its campaign against venereal disease. Where there is a venereal clinic or any provision for an examination, it is insisted that every girl arrested for a sex offense be examined for venereal disease. In many places there were no facilities for making these examinations and complete reporting to Washington has only recently been organized. Partial reports show that of 5,280 cases of women and girls worked with during the period from October 1 to June 1, 1,118 had venereal disease. How many soldiers and sailors had been infected by each girl it is impossible to estimate, but there is daily evidence that one such woman is a source of danger to hundreds of soldiers. One girl of eighteen was arrested with several soldiers. It was found that her husband who owned an automobile had been taking soldiers to the woods outside of town to meet her. She kept none of the money she received but turned it all over to him. No way of escape seemed possible to her, and her joy at being arrested was pathetic. She was found to be in a badly diseased condition and is under treatment.

It would be impossible to apprehend all the diseased women in the country and lock them up, and even if this were done other prostitutes would doubtless take their places, who would soon become infected. If we are to accomplish anything, we must be able to establish new habits of thought in the minds of these and other women. The peculiar charm and glamour which surrounds the man in uniform causes an unusual type of prostitute to spring up in time of war. Girls idealize the soldier and many really feel that nothing is wrong when done for him. One such girl said that she had never sold herself to a civilian but she felt she was doing her bit when she had been with eight soldiers in a night.

The girls around the large aviation fields in Texas have frequently been heard to say, "I'll do anything these boys ask me to. Don't they face death every day for us?" These girls must be made to realize the dangers that lie in sexual excess to the aviator who

must have a clear eye, a steady hand and good nerve. Anyone who has done juvenile court work knows that the worst "bad boy" responds when asked to protect or assume responsibility for others. Any of this instinct which may be lying dormant in these women must be appealed to and developed. The strongest element in social case work is motivation. We must give to these women and girls some desire to make good. The best social worker is the one who knows what motive to use in a particular situation and, as pointed out above, there is no field of social work which calls for more resourcefulness, imagination, optimism, and for more individualization than does work with the prostitute.

But all of our sex offenders are not prostitutes, as that term is generally understood. There is the so-called "charity girl"—the girl who goes with the soldier in return for dinners, automobile rides or any present he may give her. She receives no money. In some cases she is the daughter of a well-to-do family. In many others she is the wife of a man who works at night, or is often away from home. She is usually promiscuous and, therefore, usually diseased. Not until increased facilities are available for the physical examination and treatment of diseased girls, and until accurate records are kept, will the truth about the real extent of venereal disease be known.

The most effective personal work among this type of delinquents is that done with the girl who has committed her first sex offense. Young girls are flocking to our camp towns, attracted by the khaki, as well as by stories of the need for workers and the fabulous salaries paid them. They usually find the cost of living is far higher than the salaries paid unskilled workers. Away from home, they live in unattractive rooms, eat cheap insufficient food, and have little money left for recreation, yet many fight on day after day to keep their foothold upon the ladder of respectability. Is it any wonder that the desire for a few of the good things of life proves too much for some of them? When this occurs, if the girl can be reached at once she may be saved from a life of prostitution.

In towns where there is an existing social agency equipped to do intelligent case work with these girls they are referred to it at once. Where there is no such agency the fixed post worker does this personal work herself. If a girl has a proper home she is sent back to it. If not, all the resources of occupation, education, health,

recreation and religion in the community are brought into play. When an older woman can be found who is willing to take a personal interest in just one such girl, more can be accomplished than in almost any other way. Too much of this work has been attempted in a wholesale fashion.

One thing that has tended to make our work with delinquent girls and women so discouraging is that in most places there have been no facilities for separating the feeble-minded from the normal. Much of our best effort has been put into trying to make mental defectives act like normal human beings, and when this miracle could not be wrought we grew discouraged with the whole project. We should have competent psychologists and institutions for the feeble-minded available in every locality. Because of the lack of these facilities the Committee on Protective Work for Girls received reports on only 88 girls examined for their mental condition during six months: 42 of these were found to be definitely feeble-minded.

Although there have been many sensational stories regarding the large number of pregnant girls who claim soldiers and sailors as fathers of their children, thorough investigations have shown that they are usually based on the experience of one or two girls in the community. Among the 177 illegitimate births reported from camp cities, there are only 84 in which soldiers or sailors in the service are known to be responsible.

Our work is organized primarily for the benefit of the soldier and sailor, to help keep "clean and wholesome the environs of their camps," but we must not forget our duty towards those women and girls who are making this task difficult. All sorts of environmental factors may have entered into their delinquency—poverty, improper parental oversight, bad companions, defective education, uncongenial vocation, bad housing and harmful neighborhood influences. In many cases the physical and mental condition of the offender has been affected by heredity. Now that these facts are recognized, crime has become as much a matter of social responsibility as illiteracy. If, as many people feel, women enter upon the career of prostitution from deliberate choice, there must have been plenty of occupational and recreational opportunity which would have proved interesting. The histories of these girls show that often the cards are hopelessly stacked against them. We read that

"Alwell W., 20 years old, is a rude, unattractive girl, who uses vile language. She has been living an immoral life for three or four years, has been arrested many times and is considered by the police a hardened character. Says she enjoys her life and wouldn't change for anything." Certainly here seems to be a girl who deserves condemnation, but when we look further we discover these two significant facts in her career. She never went to school a day in her life and she started work in a cotton mill at the age of twelve. Equipped with no education and with childhood memories of long days spent in a cotton mill, should we be shocked at her choice of a life of prostitution?

Nora R., 16, is both deaf and dumb; her mother, who ran a house in the red light district for years, got Nora drunk and forced her to have intercourse with the first man she was ever with. She has a sister who is a prostitute and another on the burlesque stage.

Alina S., 19, left school at ten and started to work in a mill. Said she was tired of working and wanted to make money easily.

Bessie F., 17, prostitute. Family ignorant and low type. Step-father lazy, shiftless, drunkard, who neglects and abuses step-children.

Then there is Marie who has been arrested about twenty-five times in the last two years. She is considered a common prostitute and a very troublesome one at that. But somehow, judgment of this enemy of society softens when we learn she is only 13 years old now, that she began work in a factory when she was nine, and that it was after two years of toil that she preferred a life of prostitution. These are typical cases.

Such of the sections records as are now available show that 6 girls began work at 8 years of age, 16 at 9, 20 at 10, 18 at 11, 44 at 12, 56 at 13, 84 at 14; that 44 never went to school; 7 left school at 8, 18 at 9, 23 at 10, 27 at 11, 42 at 12, 70 at 13 and 99 at 14; 18 girls stated they had had sex experience from their earliest recollections, 2 at the age of 7, 3 at 9, 6 at 10, 7 at 11, 18 at 12, 36 at 13 and 42 at 14.

We have not yet attempted to correlate these three sets of facts or to find out what percentages they constitute of the total number of girls that have come to our attention. The figures are significant because they represent happenings that no community should tolerate even in a single instance.

The personal or case worker is often accused of simply patching

things up for an individual without in any way changing the conditions that brought about his undoing. On the other hand, it is said of the social reformer that while he is thinking of and planning for a future utopia, he neglects the people who are suffering at his door. The Section on Women and Girls is trying to combine in one person the case worker and the social reformer. In places where these matters have never been thought of before from the community standpoint, her knowledge, accumulated by contact with a series of cases, often proves a revelation, and is the beginning of a movement towards community action. Where there are competent people to handle the case work she devotes all of her time to developing and perfecting the social machinery. As a result of these efforts travelers' aid workers, policewomen and additional probation officers have been secured in many places.

Where possible, local committees are organized to direct the work. Care is taken to choose representative women whose reputations warrant confidence in any movement which they support. Girls' conferences, composed of trained workers with women and girls, meeting with these committees have had very good results. In one such conference the earnestness and sincerity, the freshness of vision shown by some of its members, previously untrained in social work, proved an inspiration to the professional social workers.

Volunteers are being trained in every town to do patrol work. Dance halls, moving picture and cheap burlesque theatres, parks and similar places of amusement are visited regularly and reports of conditions found are sent to Washington, special note being made of the violation of any law or ordinance, the presence of prostitutes, the character of entertainment offered and the general behavior of the people who frequent these places. The conditions in many dance halls were found to be unwholesome, to say the least, as many licentious forms of dancing were common. On the whole, the dance hall managers have been quite willing to help change these conditions when they found someone interested enough to point them out. Quite a few of them are now paying women, approved by the commission's local representative, to supervise their dance halls. Better lighting and policing of parks has also been secured in many places.

The need in almost every camp community for detention places where there is segregation of different classes of offenders and provision for physical examination and care, the necessity of having

more women and girls committed to institutions for long periods of time, and the lack of reformatories where proper training could be provided, led to the creation of the Section on Detention Homes and Reformatories of the Law Enforcement Division, and plans are now under way to secure the necessary provisions as quickly as possible.

These activities are all being carried on under the direction of the War Commission on Training Camp Activities and is called war work, but it cannot end with the war. The women who are learning now the relation of prostitution and venereal disease to the welfare of their sons and husbands in the training camps will not forget that lesson when the war is over. They can never again accept philosophically what they formerly had shut their eyes to as a necessary evil. These women have heard for the first time the word "prostitution" spoken aloud, they have taken part in public meetings where the subject of commercialized vice has been discussed, and they have heard venereal disease compared to small-pox. Will they permit the resurrection of the restricted vice district?

In its leadership of this new attack on the old problem, the Section on Women and Girls hopes to be able to gather such complete information on each one of these cases that it will be able to isolate a few of the causes, and to find effective remedies and to promote a program for the intelligent and widespread application of treatment. In some instances community action may be necessary in suppressing commercialized vice and the exploitation of children in industry, or in the promoting of public recreation and vocational education. In some instances provision will be necessary for taking an interest in sex offenders, case by case, and studying each one to see what individual weaknesses and defects each presents, and to correct each one in the best possible way.

As a foundation for such study the records of the Section on Women and Girls will in the future tell the story of every girl who comes to them, her age, married at what age, her educational and work history, with whom living, recreations, physical and mental condition, age at first sex experience, reason for court history, men involved, final results; these and many other facts that bear on the case.

The reports from the towns contain the population, kind of industries, and wages paid, number of churches, the clubs which have some influence on the social life of the town; the legitimate oppor-

tunities for recreation offered; the character of the places of amusement such as dance halls, theatres and parks; the number of saloons; and the violation of the white slave act and marriage of very young girls. Everything that can throw any light on the problem of prostitution is noted.

The War and Navy Departments are a unit in their determination to have a clean army and navy, and to use federal authority to wake up those complacent communities which are willing to see exploited the weaknesses of men and women. For the first time in our history, men in power are sufficiently interested and sympathetic to furnish legislative authority, money and moral support for the realization of ideals so long unheld by people with social vision.

With the responsibility placed squarely on the public where it belongs, and with precedent thus clearly established, may we not look forward to the elimination of at least the grosser forms of vice, within our own generation?

THE SEGREGATION OF DELINQUENT WOMEN AND GIRLS AS A WAR PROBLEM

BY MRS. MARTHA P. FALCONER,

Director, Section on Reformatories and Houses of Detention for Women and Girls, Commission on Training Camp Activities.

It has been suggested that the federal government establish four large institutions of industrial training, to be located respectively in the north, central, southern and western sections of the United States, in which to hold, for the period of the war, all girls and women who can be proven in federal court to be a menace to the men in training. At first thought such a drastic, summary measure seems admirable at this time when the country's need requires the greatest possible speed in securing military efficiency.

But setting aside the practical difficulties involved in executing such a plan and dismissing the question of its value socially, the problem of delinquency among women and girls, which we face today as menacing our military strength, is a problem which our awakening social conscience must face, in a lessened degree, in times of peace. So it has seemed to this section that the greatest

program that can be developed is one that not only meets the immediate need, but at the same time is so established that it can be continued as a permanent program.

Eventually, and permanently, each state must make regulations and provisions for the solution of the problem of delinquency of women and girls. At present few of the southern states, where the large majority of the training camps are located, have any program for such work. The War Department has established a system of law enforcement to protect the health and morals of our men in training, but the program can never be worked out effectively unless laws can be established for holding women on long-term sentence, and suitable places be provided for their custody and training. If the women and girls who are arrested and convicted of prostitution or vagrancy are simply given a small fine and allowed to go, it means they go back to the same life which caused their arrest. And actually, little has been accomplished.

The work must be developed in two ways. Legal machinery must be established whereby girls and women can be held on long-term sentence, and standardized institutions must be provided for their care. Representatives of the Law Enforcement Division of the Commission, and local committees and individuals in cantonment cities and states have been active in arousing public sentiment, and in preparing bills to be introduced in the state legislature and ordinances in the city council. It is the work of the Section on Reformatories and Houses of Detention for Women and Girls to develop and standardize suitable places of commitment. The principles underlying both kinds of work, and the accomplishments effected, should be the foundation of continued, permanent work in the care of delinquent women and girls.

Thus to meet the need soundly and scientifically there must be available a house of detention, or "clearing" house, where all young women and girls arrested, with the exception of hardened prostitutes and "repeaters," can be held while awaiting trial instead of being held for trial in jail. Here, under careful management, receiving medical treatment when necessary, a careful study can be made of each individual case, including physical and mental tests, and a plan recommended to the judge. Frequently the services of the army psychologist, or of the psychologist in a neighboring educational institution can be secured to make a study of the

cases. Not every girl arrested on the charge of being a prostitute or vagrant should be given a jail sentence, or sent to a reformatory. There is no single type of camp-follower. With a good house of detention, actively functioning as a "clearing" house, it will be found that varied treatment should be recommended. There are silly, young run-away girls who should be sent home; feeble-minded girls and women who should have permanent custodial care; and, in the majority, it is true, untrained, neurotic, irresponsible girls on the verge of drifting into a life of prostitution, who should have industrial training in an institution located in the country where there is abundant opportunity for outdoor work.

Alarming reports which have been circulated as to the great increase in illegitimate births due to men in training are untrue. But there has developed a very great problem in the number of child marriages. Young girls in their teens have been married to one, two or three soldiers. The problem is complicated by the fact that in some states a girl by the act of marrying becomes no longer a minor.

A detention house should never be a place of long-term commitment, nor should its use for the detention of juveniles be combined with its use for girls and young women. Its single purpose should be to serve as a clearing house, and that will be hampered if the work is complicated by a resident population, or by the difficulties of discipline caused by housing small children with older girls and women most of whom are sexual offenders.

With the idea of establishing an efficient program most quickly, and in view of the difficulty of obtaining labor and building materials at the present time, wherever possible we have urged the use of reconstructed old buildings rather than the attempt to build anew. A number of cities have established admirable houses of detention in old buildings—in school buildings or former houses of prostitution. A detention house need not be developed with an idea of permanence in view, as it is not an institution for commitment but a clearing house, and with the development of new conditions the kind of house adapted to the purpose may change.

For that matter we have been glad to give government approval of the newer development in the ideas of institutional buildings. There has been a healthy reaction against very expensive permanent buildings. While the work of this section has been to develop

and standardize facilities for the care of delinquent women and girls, in no way has it been its policy to build impressive buildings but rather to aid local or state enterprise in securing suitable, yet simple, buildings, and to standardize by regulation of the governing boards or committees the care and training furnished by the institution.

Places of long-term commitment for women and girls should be state institutions. But at present in some states practically nothing has been done in work for women and girls, and to meet the present need sentiment has to be aroused in the cantonment cities for some local provision for the care of older women, pending state action, and audience for girls' cases has to be sought in federal court for commitment to an institution in a northern state.

This latter manner of procedure has been followed to a considerable extent in South Carolina. The federal judge has sent a number of girls found to be a menace to the men in training to a reformatory in the north. In the meantime, the State Industrial School, with federal aid, is being established. To some extent this has been done elsewhere, and there are a number of good industrial training schools in different northern states that are able and willing to receive girls sent from the cantonment districts by the federal judges.

City farms are being developed by a number of cantonment cities in states where there are no reformatories for women, as a local provision for the care of older women. A city farm, if properly developed and conducted on a considerable acreage, will serve as a detention hospital for women found infected with venereal disease, and also as a place of long-term commitment for prostitutes who are not diseased, and for other women offenders. By long-term commitment we understand at least six months or a year. This is not as long as is desirable, but in many cases it is all that can be obtained from a court.

The location of the farm must be sufficiently isolated that the danger of troublesome outside intrusion will be minimized. But entirely to secure the institution from trouble-makers, and for the effective custody of some of the difficult women, potential guards in the person of farm help should be employed. During the period of adjustment it may be well to secure military guard to insure against trouble from the outside, as well as to avoid the possibility

of disturbance from within. Everywhere delinquent women and girls must be made to feel that the government is interested in them, to come down harder and harder upon them as they prove a menace to our efficiency, and the program we offer must be constructive but firm, and must reveal the distinction between a reasonable amount of freedom and an opportunity for license. When such great demands are being made upon us all, to work or fight, there is no reason why this class of women should be allowed to be in idleness. The prejudice which exists in the south against women's engaging in manual labor makes this point sometimes rather difficult to establish.

These farms must be located on sufficiently tillable areas to permit the women to engage in agricultural work, as outdoor work furnishes so great an opportunity for rehabilitation of character and because our country at the present time is in need of further agricultural development. There must always be a woman superintendent in charge of all the women committed to the farm, including their work, recreation, daily household provision and discipline. She must have the power to employ and discharge her co-workers, and must be responsible solely to a mixed board, or committee of interested representative citizens, who have the entire management of the farm and who select the superintendent. A program of work and recreation, to include agricultural work, must be established for the women, that there may be some restoration of character accomplished with physical rehabilitation.

Such farms, which include detention hospitals, are needed at once and again our policy has been to secure, if possible, land with some buildings on it which can be repaired and converted into the necessary equipment. One city has bought an old automobile club house for its city farm building for women.

Many of the southern states have passed excellent state health laws providing for the custody and medical treatment of women found suffering with venereal disease during the period of infection. But unless this regulation is accompanied by laws for long-term commitment to an institution of training, which will provide, upon dismissal, "follow-up" or parole care, the good accomplished is to only a very small degree permanent. There have been excellent detention hospitals established. They are scientifically conducted as hospitals, are clean, and the women and girls show good spirit.

In conversation they individually assure you, "Sure, I've had my lesson. When I get out I'm going to get a job and stick to it!" But unfortunately facts prove that in many cases when a girl goes out after thirty days' intensive treatment with instructions for the next six months, it is but to return within possibly the following month. The city of New Orleans has been operating an admirable detention hospital for several months. In that time one girl has been enrolled as a patient four times. This is no fault of the hospital. It has done its work well. But the state of Louisiana, or the city of New Orleans, supplies no legal means by which these girls and women can be held beyond the period of infection, nor is there as yet any suitable institution to which they can be sent, or any established social service work to follow up cases after they leave the hospital.

Modern reformatories for women and girls, which, as separate institutions, should exist in every state, should be developed as industrial schools or colonies located on a farm in the country. In some states where there are good state reformatories the entire problem of the care of delinquent girls and women in this unusual time has been handled through these established channels. Girls under eighteen should be committed for the remainder of their minority, with the idea of parole after two years' training in the school. Women should be given, if possible, an indeterminate sentence involving long-term parole. This is necessary if a complete program of rehabilitation and training is to be effected to supplement the plans for medical treatment which are being pushed by the Public Health Service.

The institutions must be in the hands of women, for it is a woman's job to work with women, and the women and girls committed have frequently seen a great deal of the wrong kind of men and very little of the right kind of women. Agricultural work must be developed as a feature of the place for its rehabilitating and economic value. Fundamental academic school work must be given in a school which it is possible for each woman or girl to attend some time during the day. There must be sewing, hand-work, and a complete course of training in the domestic work involved in the conduct of a house,—including the laundry work. All of the work involved in the up-keep of the institution should be done by the women and girls under direction, as far as possible, for

this develops a sense of responsibility that nothing else can. The humanizing and socializing effect of good music cannot be over-emphasized. The power of group-singing has been strikingly proved by the work of the camp song leaders.

Group consciousness and a sense of the individual's relation to the morale of the community can often be developed by a carefully guided system of self-government. High types of women are willing to undertake institutional work with delinquent women and girls provided the life and spirit of the place be held at a sufficiently high level. Frequently college women will employ their excellent training in this work, and prove valuable aids in guiding a self-government system.

Everywhere there is forced upon us a growing realization of the menace of the immoral colored girls and women, and the difficulties in many of the states of arousing public sentiment to make provision for their care. Virginia is the only state which has a reformatory for colored girls alone. Of course in many states they are handled in the same institution as the white girls. But in a number of states there is nothing save a short jail sentence spent in idleness in unspeakable surroundings. It has been a part of the policy in this section to meet whenever possible with groups of interested negro citizens in the different cantonment cities and to urge them to plan and make some start in work for their women and girls that can later be taken over by the state. And we have sought to force upon white citizens realization of the fact that the problem of the immoral colored girls and women directly affects them, and is theirs to face as much as it is for the colored themselves.

Everywhere we have received splendid coöperation of state and city officials. The work of the section has of necessity progressed only as has the work of local and federal law enforcement. Its work is to develop and standardize institutions for the care of girls and women who are a menace to our men in training, but it aims to work in effecting this war program, so that the effort and money expended will contribute towards the establishment of an effective, permanent program for the care of delinquent women and girls.

WOMEN'S EDUCATION IN SOCIAL HYGIENE

BY KATHARINE BEMENT DAVIS,

Social Hygiene Division, Commission on Training Camp Activities.

The Section on Women's Work of the Social Hygiene Division of the Commission on Training Camp Activities was created because of the recognition of the fact that no problem which involves a setting of moral standards can ever be solved without the coöperation of both halves of the community which is concerned. For generations, women have thought that however unpalatable it might be, a double standard of morals, so far as sex relationships are concerned, was inevitable. They have been taught to believe that sexual indulgence was necessary to preserve the health of men; that a young man is more or less expected to sow his wild oats, be forgiven, marry a "pure" girl and settle down to a family life.

With women it was different. They have always been expected to be chaste up to the time of their marriage. If by any chance a woman slipped and it were known, she lost, as a rule, social position, the regard of her friends and, not infrequently, was disowned by her family. It was believed that a woman should not know anything of vice or disease, much less discuss them. Her ignorance, which was confounded with innocence, was her charm.

On the other hand, the setting aside of a certain class of women known as prostitutes, whose reason for existence was the gratification of the appetites of men, was an outcome of this state of affairs. It has been said that the profession of prostitution is the oldest in the world for women, that it has always existed and cannot be done away with. In a vague way, many women knew that the so-called "social" diseases existed; more infrequently they knew of them as venereal diseases, but almost never by name. Physicians who have known the true facts concerning the complaints with which their women patients were afflicted have observed a conspiracy of silence. We have talked about "female weaknesses," "female diseases," "the complaints of women," when, as a matter of fact, women have been infected with one or the other of the venereal diseases.

Another common belief, shared alike by men and women, was that soldiers and sailors were, among the men, the class most given to lack of restraint and that among them we would expect to find

the highest percentage of venereal disease. The war has brought a rude awakening. For the first time, accurate statistics have shown us something of the percentages of the young men in a cross-section of society who suffered from syphilis or gonorrhea. It has been more or less a matter of general information since the outbreak of the great war that more men in the armies of our Allies have been in the hospitals, and therefore unable to fight, as a result of these diseases than there were in the hospitals as a result of the bullets of the enemy.

Luckily for the American people, when our country entered the war those in authority at Washington had had opportunity to observe and learn conditions at the front. They very speedily made up their minds that such conditions were intolerable and that the government of the United States must by every means in its power prevent the incapacitating of so vast a number of its soldiers and sailors for their military duties.

The Selective Draft Act carried with it authority under which the President of the United States and the Secretaries of War and Navy could undertake to control vice and disease not only in the camps but in the regions adjacent to the camps and could prohibit in these extra-cantonment zones the sale of alcohol. The close relationship of alcohol to lack of self-control and to prostitution is axiomatic.

The story of the organization of communities to take care of the leisure hours of the soldiers in their midst is told elsewhere. It soon became apparent that not only must healthful recreation be provided in and out of camp for the soldiers' and sailors' hours of leisure, but also there must be constructive educational work done among them. For this reason, the Army and Navy Section of the Social Hygiene Division, in charge of Lieutenant Clarke, was created. Lieutenant Clarke's story of the activities of his section will be an important part of the history of this war when it comes to be written. But more remained to be done.

It was evident, if the soldier in our great cantonments found temptation in the civilian communities in which he spent his leave, a certain percentage would inevitably yield to temptation. It was necessary to have clean communities. Moreover, the selective draft is a continuous process. The men are coming from the civilian communities and the effect on the medical records of the camps of

each influx of civilians was astonishing. The increase in the venereal rate was overwhelming proof that the dangers of disease in the civilian community were far in excess of what had heretofore been recognized. Education was obviously necessary before the men entered the army.

Yet another phase of the matter presented itself. The success of the war is quite as dependent upon production as upon our fighting men. The army gets nowhere if it is not adequately provided with guns, munitions, clothing, food. Our armies would not now be making the show which they are in France had we not been able to ship all the materials necessary for constructing the great railroad lines which are crossing France at different points. It is just as vital to success that our industrial army be fit as that our army in the field should be ready to fight. A diseased man is an inefficient man, anywhere you put him. We must bring to our industrial armies some knowledge of the menace of disease;—hence the creation of a section on educational work for civilian men.

Both the sections on army and navy work and on work for civilian men had been in existence for some months before the fact dawned that this was a problem for both men and women. There can be no sexual irregularities of any sort which do not ordinarily involve both men and women. It is thinkable that if every woman in the country, old and young, could be brought to see the menace to society which is involved in these anti-social relationships, if she should refuse absolutely to yield to temptation, the problem would be solved. Unfortunately it is not as simple as that. Women, however, are unquestionably able to create at least half of public opinion. Not only this, in many states at the present time they have an active voice in the selection of the men who make the local ordinances or state laws or in the choice of those who are to enforce them. Where they have this power they are much more likely to be listened to with respect.

It is, however, of the utmost importance that public opinion and community action should be based on accurate knowledge. If the women of the country are to render a real assistance to the government in this important direction, they must know, first, exactly what the situation is; the menace of venereal disease; how it is to be combated most effectively; of the standards of conduct the young women of the country should recognize, particularly in their

dealings with the thousands of soldiers in their midst in these times of stress and temptation; that mothers, as never before, should realize their responsibility in directing their daughters; that before community action of any kind is taken, the women should acquaint themselves in their respective communities with the ordinances upon the statute books for the control of vice and the stamping out of disease; that they should find out to what extent these laws are being enforced. They should know what provisions are made for the care of those who are diseased and the protection of the public from the spread of infection. They should know the kind of provision that is made, particularly for the women who are convicted of sex offenses. They should know whether for the same offense there is provision for the men who are partners with the women in conduct not only in violation of our legal standards, but of our moral law as well.

Women must recognize their responsibility for existing conditions and that a very great part of this responsibility is the promotion of education in these matters. Knowing all this, a section on women's work was created. It is endeavoring, in the first place, to work with all the great organized groups of women in the United States in spreading accurate information to their members. The Social Morality Committee of the War Work Council of the National Board of the Young Women's Christian Association, immediately on the creation of our section, put at the disposal of the government all its resources. The Social Morality Committee has for the last half dozen years carried on very quietly and unassumingly an educational work in social hygiene, largely in normal schools and other institutions which trained women to be teachers. On our entrance into the war, realizing the importance of accurate knowledge among women, they had of their own account greatly increased their work. On account of their experience, the Lecture Bureau of the Social Morality Committee was made the official lecture bureau of the Commission on Training Camp Activities.

An Advisory Committee has been formed, consisting of women who are affiliated with large national bodies of women, in order that by their advice and practical coöperation they may assist in extending our program. It consists of:

First, the Women's Committee of the Council of National Defense, whose Washington representative, Miss Hannah J. Patterson, is actively coöoperating through its state organizations.

Second, the General Federation of Women's Clubs, through the coöperation of the chairman of its Public Health Division, Mrs. Elmer Blair.

Third, the War Work Council of the National Board of the Young Women's Christian Association, through the chairman of its Social Morality Committee, Dr. Anna L. Brown.

Fourth, the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, through its secretary, Mrs. Gertrude S. Martin.

Fifth, the National Council of Jewish Women, through Mrs. Alexander Kohut.

Sixth, the National Women's Trade Union League, through Mrs. Raymond Robins.

Two representatives of the Catholic War Work Council and the National Education Association are still to be appointed.

The section on Women's Work is carrying on its activities through lectures, the distribution of literature, magazine and newspaper publicity, the publication of a weekly bulletin, exhibits and a moving picture film. The lecture work is growing by leaps and bounds. Already we have been obliged to open a branch office in Boston and one in Chicago, in addition to the offices in Washington and New York. The lectures are given before all kinds of groups of women—club women, mothers' meetings, church organizations, girls in industrial plants and manufacturing establishments; in schools from the seventh and eighth grades up through the colleges; at all kinds of meetings of state and national women's organizations; to girls' clubs—in short, wherever women are gathered together.

These lectures are given for the most part by women physicians, selected with special reference to their knowledge of these matters and their ability to present them to audiences of various kinds. For example, one physician will be specially successful in presenting the subject to a group of mothers; another is at her best with an audience of college girls; while still another is especially able to get hold of the girl who earns her own living. Some of our speakers are devoting their entire time to the work; others, perhaps engaged in private practice, can give a week at a time, or possibly only a few lectures in their immediate locality. To save time, energy and money, we are learning that it is wise, so far as possible, to concentrate on intensive campaigns in special localities. We are therefore sending an organizer into the community in which an intensive piece of work is to be done, who meets the representative women of all groups, so far as possible, and forms a temporary local committee. This committee assists in the planning of the schedule, secures permission for speakers in industrial plants and sees to the

advertising and other local publicity. When the schedules are all arranged, one or more—sometimes as many as five or six—of our speakers go to the locality and spend a week or longer giving talks to the previously arranged groups.

Our great appeal is the patriotic service which is to be rendered by the women of the country. Following each lecture are conferences in which women or girls present are able to ask privately of the physicians questions which may have arisen. It is largely on account of the character of the questions which we find are asked that it is desirable to have trained physicians as speakers. The lecture work is followed up or, in some cases, preceded by the distribution of specially prepared literature.

For example, we have placards which we are asking to have posted in lavatories, rest-rooms, restaurants or wherever women congregate. The two which are in use at the time of writing are as follows:

**THE WAR DEPARTMENT COMMISSION ON TRAINING CAMP ACTIVITIES ASKS THE
AID OF WOMEN IN CONTROLLING VENEREAL DISEASES FOR THE
SAKE OF OUR ARMY AND OF OUR COUNTRY**

WOMEN HAVE NOT KNOWN

the truth about venereal diseases and how they occur.

We must know now in order to do our share
in saving our country from a grave menace.

We have gained control over tuberculosis.

We must gain control over venereal diseases.

**SOME FACTS ABOUT
VENEREAL DISEASES**

GONORRHEA

The most prevalent of all dangerous infectious diseases. It is a germ disease that causes:

Chronic ill health

Many childless marriages

Serious operations on the vital organs of women

Diseases of the joints, bladder and generative organs

Much blindness among babies.

SYphilis

More prevalent than all other dangerous infectious diseases combined. It is a germ disease that causes:

Insanity

Paresis or softening of brain

Locomotor ataxia

Paralysis in early life

Imbecile and crippled children

Diseases of heart, blood vessels, etc.

Both these diseases can be cured, but they are often *not* cured, even after all signs disappear under treatment. A real cure is a matter of months and sometimes years. One act of sexual intercourse may produce the infection.

INFECTION

Infection results chiefly from promiscuous sexual intercourse.

Also it may occur accidentally: a drinking-cup which has been used by an infected person may infect the mouth of the next user.

PREVENTION

The only *sure* prevention is to avoid promiscuous sexual relations. Sexual intercourse is *not* necessary to health.

If you know someone who is anxious over this matter, advise consulting the plant doctor. Don't go to doctors who advertise "sure cures."

A NATIONAL SERVICE

Remember These Facts—Tell Your Friends!

For FREE INFORMATION, write to
COMMISSION ON TRAINING CAMP ACTIVITIES
Social Hygiene Division
105 West 40th Street, New York.

**WHEN THE BOYS COME HOME
WILL THEY BE DISAPPOINTED**

in their towns?
in their friends?

THE ARMY TEACHES OUR SOLDIERS

- (1) That immorality is dangerous;
- (2) That immorality isn't necessary;
- (3) That immorality doesn't pay.

THE GOVERNMENT ASKS US

- (1) To raise our moral standards;
- (2) To repress prostitution;
- (3) To control venereal diseases.

It has been found that 90 per cent of the venereal disease cases in camps were infected before the men left civilian life. They were infected in their home towns. This is the result of ignorance; of indifference; of wrong traditions.

WILL YOU FACE THE FACTS?

Will you help to make your home town safer and cleaner for the boys when they come home?

If so, let us tell you how.

Free information may be had at

THE WAR DEPARTMENT
COMMISSION ON TRAINING CAMP ACTIVITIES
Social Hygiene Division
105 West 40th Street, New York City.

Two special talks to women have been prepared, one entitled "The Nation's Call to Young Women," for girls from eighteen up; and another called "Your Country Needs You," for girls in the teen age. These can be placed directly in the hands of the girls where it seems desirable. Other literature is prepared for older women. "Women's Share in a National Service," "What is the Government Doing for Your Boy—A Suggested Program for Women's Clubs," "The Soldier, Uncle Sam and You," "Do' Your Bit to Keep Him Fit," in a form revised to include women's share in the community program, are some of the titles which are used.

Up to the time of writing, our literature has been addressed only to the English-speaking community, but plans have been completed whereby it is to be translated into Yiddish for the great groups of girls in the garment trades in our large cities, and next into Italian and Polish, or other languages of special groups. Necessarily our subject matter must be so modified as to be presented in the form most likely to win the attention of the special group.

Our exhibition material as yet consists chiefly of wall placards and stereomotorgraph slides. In certain localities where there is some public sentiment among both men and women against presenting the bald facts of social hygiene we are holding what we call public health weeks where social hygiene is presented as one part of a general public health program, including in our exhibit material illustrating the fight against tuberculosis, for example, and showing the wonderful work being done under the Children's Bureau for what is known as Children's Year. Here different organizations representing all phases of public health activity are coöperating in furnishing exhibit material and in providing speakers. While this method is somewhat more difficult of operation, on account of the number of coöperating agencies required, it is, we think, a useful one.

Through the General Federation of Women's Clubs, women of the country who are members of the affiliated organizations are being asked to devote at least two days of their program during the coming year—whether the club has been formed to discuss art, music or the drama—to a consideration of the question of social hygiene. We feel that two days in these critical times is little enough to ask of them. We suggest that on one day they arrange for a representative of the Social Hygiene Division—either men's,

women's or army section, it is immaterial which—to present the whole plan of the government's activities, including the work of the Surgeons General of the Army and Navy, the Surgeon General of the Public Health Service, of the State Public Health Service and the work of the Social Hygiene Division of the Commission on Training Camp Activities—in short, all that is being done by the government along these lines. On the second day we ask that the members of the club, after having given time to the study of the question, discuss through papers or round table the conditions in the community affected by the war: (a) the present equipment to meet them; (b) is it adequate and effective? A list of alternative topics for discussion is suggested, such as:

1. What a mother should tell her daughter.
2. Protective officers and their functions.
3. Supervision of public parks and playgrounds.
4. Movies in our town.
5. Qualities of leadership for girls' clubs.
6. When and where is the Curfew Law effective?
7. Does segregation solve the problem of prostitution?
8. School teachers' influence in establishing social standards in a community.

Bibliographies are furnished which can be the basis for private reading and study of the individual members.

Organizations such as the Daughters of Rebekah, Daughters of America, Companions of the Forest of America, Women's Relief Corps, Degree of Pocahontas, Pythian Sisters and the Women's Benefit Association of the Maccabees are being asked to coöperate by sending letters to all members who have sons in the service asking that the mothers in writing to their sons stimulate the innate chivalry in their boys by calling upon them to respect the womanhood in the countries to which they are going as they would wish their sisters to be respected were the enemy upon our own soil.

Our weekly bulletin began as a multigraphed letter to our staff of lecturers and others directly connected with us, keeping them informed of activities in the field in our own and other affiliated divisions, culling out the gist of the latest in periodical literature concerning our cause or such other material as we might wish to get before them. In less than three months the demand has become such that by the time this article appears in print we expect to have a printed bulletin going out each week and carrying authentic in-

formation to those coöperating with us. Our division has on its staff several women who are devoting themselves to the work of preparing and presenting to the magazines and press of our country authentic information or articles setting forth our work.

Before this goes to print we shall have ready a moving picture film prepared for the purpose of doing for the girls of the community what the film, "Fit to Fight," is so successfully doing for the young men in the army and navy. It is called "The End of the Road" and, as its title implies, is an effort to make girls see that every action in life is followed by its consequence; that in the spiritual as well as in the physical world, the law of cause and effect prevails. It attempts to emphasize the responsibilities of motherhood in the preparation of the daughters for life and brings home the sorrow and suffering which follow self-indulgence and thoughtlessness. It is to be used in connection with our lectures and with the film, "How Life Begins," which can be shown as a preliminary.

Our whole campaign can be summed up in the words of one of our little leaflets:

Women have believed

That: Sexual indulgence was a necessity for young men.

With women it was different.

They should know little of sex matters—and never discuss them.

A young man's "wild oats" should be forgiven; a woman's, never.

Women know today

That: There is no such necessity for either men or women.

There is danger to themselves and to their children in irregular sexual relations because of the possibility—even probability—of infection with a venereal disease.

They are responsible for their acts not only to themselves, but to their community, their country and their future; and that "desire" is a fatal excuse.

Social and industrial inefficiency result from the selfish indulgence of an appetite. We scorn the glutton; we are beginning to exercise social control over the alcoholic; we must now control venereal diseases.

Syphilis and gonorrhea are highly infectious, but controllable by proper measures; they are being controlled in military centers and must be controlled in civilian life.

Women's duty is

- To: Refuse to be ignorant; face the facts and the consequences.
- Believe that men and boys with whom they associate *can* and *will* lead clean lives.
- Insist that men be morally and physically clean if they are to be accepted as associates; to cease from indifference and thereby keep other women from suffering.
- Help their communities to close evil resorts and to provide wholesome recreation.
- Do this personally, when possible; to show their convictions in letters and stimulate other women to do likewise; to organize to help stamp out disease and delinquency and so help the government make its men, women and its communities clean.
- Study the causes of disease and delinquency in order to aid intelligently in preventing them.

We *can* stamp out syphilis and gonorrhea as the plague and yellow fever and smallpox have been stamped out. We *can* destroy the old institution of prostitution. We can do this when men and women have faith to believe that it can be done and when they unite in teaching the boys and girls of this country while they are little the laws of health, the sacredness of sex relationship and the possibility of self-control.

We call for the coöperation of all the women of the country. The resources of our section are at their disposal and we are at all times glad to be called upon to work out plans of coöperation whereby the government's program can be brought before ever-increasing numbers of patriotic women.

THE PROMOTION OF SOCIAL HYGIENE IN WAR TIME

BY WALTER CLARKE,

First Lieutenant, Sanitary Corps, U. S. N. A.

If the public interest of America in various social enterprises were to be indicated by a graph it would be found that with the declaration of war some lines of work declined rapidly to zero and others ascended sharply. Only a few, if any, remain at the present time in the same relative position occupied prior to the opening of hostilities. It will be remembered that in 1914 when the world was thrown into agitation by the beginning of the present war, one social agency after another went to the wall for lack of financial support. A few organizations saw phenomenal growth, for example, the Red Cross and the Y. M. C. A., but there was a general consolidation and elimination among most social organizations.

An even more marked process of elimination took place with the entrance of the United States into the war. Apparently, the criterion of public support is the answer to the question "How will this organization help win the war?" Unless the answer shows obvious and substantial contribution to the successful prosecution of the war, funds for its support are not forthcoming. This is sometimes most unfortunate and short-sighted, as in the case of social settlement houses, the work of which is of the greatest value to the community; yet American settlements have had the utmost difficulty in continuing their activities and have in most cases survived only by greatly curtailing personnel and services.

In 1914 there was doubt whether social hygiene organizations could continue, while on every hand other organizations were being cut off from financial support. The most important national agency for the promotion of social hygiene had just completed reorganization when the conflagration threatened to sweep it away with the rest. In the face of this danger the board of directors determined to expand rather than diminish the work of the organization, making a bid for support on the basis of national welfare. In the light of subsequent events it is plain how fortunate it is that social hygiene work was continued and expanded, for had it been

discontinued in 1914 the remarkable developments in 1917 and 1918 would not have been possible.

Between October, 1914, the time of the momentous decision by the American Social Hygiene Association referred to above, and April, 1917, the social hygiene movement in the United States developed steadily, if not rapidly, the most substantial gains being reflected in the change of public opinion regarding the control of prostitution and the reduction of venereal disease. Investigations, experiments, demonstrations and public education gradually molded the attitude of leaders in public affairs from hopelessness to hopefulness and willingness to try the newer and more scientific methods. As it became more and more apparent that the United States must enter the war the liveliest interest became attached to the problem of venereal disease and military efficiency. Reports from Europe re-emphasized that which every student of social hygiene knew, that venereal disease is the greatest cause of military disability aside from the casualties of the line and that after-war sequelae are of great social consequence.

After Congress declared a state of war to exist, the attention of leaders of social hygiene in the United States was focused on Washington. The early adoption by the United States of a scientific and comprehensive policy for the dealing with prostitution and venereal disease was a necessity if the United States was to avoid the disasters incurred both by our Allies and our enemies. Within a week after war was declared a notable group of physicians, sociologists and economists met in Washington and adopted a set of resolutions which formed a platform to be recommended to the government as a basis of policy. These resolutions as finally adopted by the Council of National Defense were as follows:

WHEREAS, venereal infections are among the most serious and disabling diseases to which the soldier and sailor are liable;

WHEREAS, they constitute a grave menace to the civil population;

Therefore, the Committee on Hygiene and Sanitation of the General Medical Board of the Council of National Defense, recommends that the General Medical Board transmit to the Council of National Defense for the guidance of the War and Navy Departments the following recommendations:—

1. That the Departments of War and Navy officially recognize that sexual continence is compatible with health and that it is the best prevention of venereal infections.

2. That the Departments of War and Navy take steps toward the prevention of venereal infections through the exclusion of prostitutes within an effective

zone surrounding all places under their control, and by the provision of suitable recreational facilities, the control of the use of alcoholic drinks, and other effective measures.

3. That the said Departments adopt a plan for centralized control of venereal infections through special divisions of their medical services.

4. That the said Departments consider the plan of organization herewith attached.

WHEREAS, the use of alcoholic beverages is generally recognized as an important factor in the spread of venereal disease in the army and navy; and

WHEREAS, these diseases are among the most serious and disabling ones to which soldiers and sailors are liable;

Therefore, be it resolved that we endorse the action of the army and navy in prohibiting alcoholic beverages within military places in their control and we further recommend that the sale or use of alcoholic beverages be prohibited to soldiers and sailors within an effective zone about such places.

Following upon this statement of policy two important events took place. The government put the policy into operation as a practical and workable plan, and state and city governments and civic organizations all over the United States adopted supporting resolutions adding clauses which offered unlimited backing for the stand taken by the Council of National Defense. Nothing that the war has caused to transpire in America has been more phenomenal than the wholesale adoption of a modern scientific social hygiene program by federal and local governments and no program has been given more unanimous and pronounced support. The program itself would have seemed, a few years ago, too elaborate and intricate for consideration as a national undertaking, but under the stimulation of the war not only is the federal government's program in full progress, but state and city governments, civic and industrial organizations, public and private agencies are adopting coördinate measures for the promotion of national health and efficiency. As adopted by the Surgeon General of the Army this social hygiene program is as follows:

PROGRAM OF ATTACK ON VENEREAL DISEASES

An outline of activities and coöperating agencies planned to reduce the prevalence of the venereal diseases.

Methods of attack upon venereal diseases divide themselves into four classes:

A. Social measures to diminish sexual temptations.

B. Education of soldiers and civilians in regard to venereal diseases.

C. Prophylactic measures against venereal diseases.

D. Medical care.

A. Social Measures to Diminish Sexual Temptations

- (1) The repression of prostitution and the liquor traffic.
- (2) Provision of proper social surroundings and recreation.

These activities which have to do with social matters largely fall outside the jurisdiction of the medical service of the army, but this service can render these activities more efficient by stimulating and supporting them, and wherever practical such support should be given.

B. Education of Soldiers and Civilians

- (1) For Soldiers: a. Lectures; b. Pamphlets; c. Exhibits:

a. Lectures to soldiers should be given by medical and line officers and by competent volunteers furnished by outside agencies under invitation and direction of the Medical Department. These, beside inculcating continence, should explain the risk and waste of venereal diseases and the program adopted to avoid them. Lecturers without authority should not be permitted.

b. A pamphlet should be given the soldier as soon as possible after enlistment. This pamphlet should be very brief and should warn the soldier of the venereal dangers to which he may be exposed and give him instructions, if he should be exposed, to report as promptly as possible to his regimental infirmary.

c. Exhibits, such as the Coney Island exhibit, and other exhibits and demonstration methods worked out by the American Social Hygiene Association, the exhibit of the National Cash Register Company, the exhibits of the Oregon Social Hygiene Society and the Missouri Society, should be adapted to the needs of military life and furnished to each cantonment.

- (2) For Civilians:

In the attack upon the venereal problem, it is highly desirable that such educational activities as those outlined above for soldiers should be stimulated for the civilian population.

*C. Prophylactic Measures***Instruction in Prophylaxis:**

Soldiers should be informed of the fact that there are prophylactic measures that reduce the dangers of venereal infection. But this instruction should take particular care to inform them that there are limitations to such prophylactic measures and that they furnish only partial protection and in no sense give freedom from risk.

Regimental Infirmarys:

The provision of prophylaxis (early treatment) in regimental infirmaries, which should be open day and night, is imperative in any sane attack upon venereal diseases.

Infirmaries in Civil Centers:

In cities, where there are no adequate civil dispensaries to be used and through which soldiers in considerable numbers pass, either while on leave or in travel, there should be provided in accessible locations regimental infirmaries.

Leaves of Absence:

In the interest of health, long leaves of absence for soldiers should be as far as possible discouraged. Leaves of absence of more than twenty-four hours are particularly dangerous, and it would be advantageous if leaves of absence were timed from as early an hour in the day as possible.

D. Medical Care**Hospital Organization:**

There should be a special service in each cantonment hospital to care for skin and venereal diseases.

Instruction in Venereal Disease for Medical Officers:

One of the important functions of these services will be to train a group of men in venereal diseases. The service will, if well conducted, rapidly develop the knowledge of these diseases among medical officers.

Hospital Cases:

The cantonment hospitals should have under their care all cases of venereal diseases which are in the acute, infectious stages. These include:

All cases of acute gonorrhea.

All cases of syphilis during the early infectious stage and which have chancres, mucous patches, or condylomata.

Standard Records:

The syphilitic register of the army should be carefully and fully kept and social facts of epidemiological importance should be secured in every case if possible.

Standardized Treatment:

An effort should be made to standardize in a general way methods of treatment, and provision should be made for some special instructions in venereal diseases for all medical officers who have charge of troops. To this end, a manual of instructions should be issued to each of the medical officers in the army. This should especially emphasize the great importance of early diagnosis and treatment in venereal diseases and outline suitable methods of treatment.

There should be furnished cards of brief instruction to patients with gonorrhcea or syphilis.

Laboratory Facilities:

Laboratory facilities are necessary:

1. For demonstrating gonococci and other bacteria.
2. For demonstrating spirochetes by dark field illumination.
3. For urinalysis (which should be required once a week for every syphilitic patient under treatment).

These laboratory facilities should be in the wards of the venereal service.

4. For Wassermann tests.

These to be in the general laboratory.

Inspections:

In order to keep up a high standard of effectiveness, there should be provision for inspection of these services by special inspectors in venereal diseases from the surgeon general's office. These inspections should cover each of the four classes of attack specified.

Wm. ALLEN PUSEY

FRANCIS R. HAGNER

GROVER W. WENDE

S. POLLITZER

HENRY H. MORTON

WILLIAM F. SNOW

Committee on Venereal Diseases.

COLONEL F. F. RUSSELL, M.C.,

In charge, Division of Infectious Diseases.

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Obviously the government's part in such a program requires elaborate machinery, and that such machinery has been constructed and placed in effective operation within the period of one year is one of the remarkable feats of the war. The Medical Department of the army, the Bureau of Medicine and Surgery of the navy, the Public Health Service, the General Medical Board of the Council of National Defense and the War and Navy Departments Commissions on Training Camp Activities are the principal federal agencies which work on this program. They receive expert assistance in making the program most effective from the American Social Hygiene Association, and such other organizations as the American Red Cross, the Y. M. C. A., the American Playground Association and numerous other national and local organizations are lending support and aid. Among all these government and private organizations there is the most intricate inter-relation and, of necessity, the closest coöperation. In addition all are coöperating with city and state governments in carrying out the details of the work.

It would be impossible in so brief a résumé to describe all the special features and penetrations of war-time social hygiene work. Only the most outstanding general facts may be given as indicative of all that is being done for the protection of the health and morals of men in the army and navy, in factories, shipyards and offices, and of women and girls at home and employed.

Wholesome recreation has long been an important feature of the social hygiene program. The healthful occupation of the body and mind is the first line of defense against vice and disease. It is furthermore a necessity for the maintenance of high morale in the civil population and in the army and navy. The War and Navy Departments Commissions on Training Camp Activities are the agencies responsible for providing this safeguard to health and character and, in discharging this duty, provision has been made for the men in every important military and naval establishment and in the communities about such establishments. The American Playground Association, the Y. M. C. A. and other organizations are coöperating with the Commissions in providing recreation. Also special attention is given by the Commissions and such organizations as the Y. W. C. A. to the women and girls in the vicinity of army and navy training camps. Athletics, music, theatrical performances, motion pictures, dancing and numerous other forms of recreation are available for men and women who wish or can be induced to take advantage of them. The American Library Association coöperates with the Commissions in providing abundant reading matter in all camps.

The provision of wholesome outlets would not accomplish its maximum result unless degenerative influences were removed. Vice repression and the restriction of the liquor traffic are the necessary complements of recreation. Legal instruments were early provided by Congress for the repression of prostitution and the sale of alcoholic beverages to men in uniform. The secretaries of war and the navy, being responsible for the application of these legal instruments, assigned the duty of stimulating the enforcement of federal, state and city law to the War and Navy Departments Commissions on Training Camp Activities. The latter, with elaborate assistance in personnel from the Surgeons General of the Army and the Navy, have accomplished remarkable results in the performance of this task. More than eighty red light districts

have been closed. Prostitution and illicit liquor trafficking have been made less available and more hazardous and difficult to carry on. There is not now a single segregated vice district in the vicinity of a military or naval establishment in the United States. In carrying on this enormous task the personnel, experience and facilities of the American Social Hygiene Association are in use by the government. Local law-enforcing officials have coöperated in making the cities of the United States cleaner than they ever had been in their previous histories.

An elaborate educational program has been placed in operation by the combined efforts of the Surgeons General of the Army and the Navy, and the Commissions on Training Camp Activities. The desideratum is that every man should have sane and practical information regarding the nature of venereal diseases, how they are contracted and how they may be avoided. The Commissions, with the assistance and at the request of the medical branches of the army and navy, have approximated this desired end. More than a million and a half pamphlets on social hygiene have been placed in the hands of soldiers and sailors, more than a million soldiers and sailors have heard an illustrated lecture on the nature and prevention of venereal disease, and every large military and naval establishment in the United States has been equipped with exhibits and stereomotorgraphs for graphic instruction. Trained non-commissioned officers are in charge of these facilities, ready to give assistance and advice to all inquirers. Prior to the initiation of this work by the Commissions on Training Camp Activities much had been done by the medical officers of the army and navy in giving soldiers and sailors instructions regarding venereal disease. Their work has been continued and supplemented by the facilities provided by the Commissions.

Recently created sections of the Commissions are making substantial progress in presenting the facts of social hygiene to men and women in industries, clubs, churches; and through the daily and periodical press. Civilians are being informed by lectures, pamphlets, exhibits and newspaper articles of their responsibility for the health and morals of the men in uniform and are having brought home to them the menace of venereal disease as a cause of inefficiency in industries. Never in the United States in any field of public health or social work has so comprehensive a program of

education been undertaken as that which now has for its object the conservation of the moral and physical forces of the nation for the winning of the war. Coöperating with government agencies in the field are the Y. M. C. A., the Y. W. C. A., the American Red Cross, the American Social Hygiene Association and numerous local clubs and societies.

When, in spite of all safeguards of the government and of volunteer agencies, men in uniform expose themselves to venereal disease, medical measures are provided by the medical branches of the army and navy for the prevention of infection. In the past this medical prophylaxis was provided only inside army and navy establishments, but with the present greatly enlarged personnel it is necessary to have supplementary stations in the larger cities to which men go when on leave. Early treatment stations have been established in many of the cities near important army camps. Here soldiers may receive medical treatment and advice which may not only prevent infection but may also re-enforce moral stamina so that exposure in the future may be less likely. Under present circumstances the medical part of this military measure is not possible or expedient for civilians; but it is necessary for the fighting efficiency of our forces.

Men in the army and navy receive better treatment for venereal disease than they would in general were they still in civil life. The medical branches of the army and navy include expert personnel for the treatment of venereal infections, and medical equipment for the proper administration of such treatment. One of the outstanding facts recently brought to light by statistical studies in the office of the Surgeon General of the Army is the fact that five-sixths of all cases of venereal infections reported by the army since our mobilization were acquired by soldiers prior to their coming under military control and discipline.

Even more significant, however, is the work which is being done as a war measure for the treatment of venereal disease among civilians. During the past year eleven state boards of health have established special bureaus of venereal disease with appropriations in each case ranging at about \$30,000. These bureaus have for their object the treatment of venereal disease, the education of the public with reference to the seriousness of venereal infection, and the prevention of infections by the enforcement of law and the pro-

tection of delinquent and dependent persons. The U. S. Public Health Service, in coöperation with the Surgeons General of the Army and Navy, the American Red Cross and the American Social Hygiene Association, has established in cantonment cities, twenty-five clinics for the treatment of venereal disease. Here is available not only excellent treatment and social guidance but also educational material and advice for the well and the diseased. Furthermore, thirty-two states have requested the expert assistance of the U. S. Public Health Service in initiating campaigns against venereal disease.

The net results of all the medical, educational and social measures cannot better be epitomized than by saying that the young American is safer from venereal disease in the army and navy than he would be at home. On the other hand those remaining at home are now safer than they have ever been in the previous history of the United States. Never before has anything so nearly approximating adequate care and precaution been provided to the military and civil population of this country for the prevention of venereal infection, and treatment thereof.

Major General William C. Gorgas, the Surgeon General of the Army, says:

The greatest credit item which the army medical corps has placed upon the war ledger, in the six months that the men have been in camp, is the prevention of some 13,000 cases of venereal disease. This is the number of men who would have had sex maladies, gonorrhœa or syphilis, had they stayed in civil life, and who have remained healthy and fit only because we went to war.

This figure is conservative; reckons only our advance, in the conquest of this disease, over the army conditions of peace times. If civilian figures were available, the credit would be greater. Among new men entering the army, we always find a much larger percentage of infection than among seasoned soldiers. In a recent report from twenty-nine representative camps, 83 per cent of the venereal cases were incoming men. In preventing these diseases, we are also preventing their horrible after effects.

Our measure of success in stamping out venereal disease has come from compulsory education in the army, from medical treatment, disciplinary measures, and from community coöperation. The army rate for peace times, although it was a gratifying reduction from civil rates, still was higher than our present figure because of the indifference of the public.

Community sources of infection were not within the control of our medical corps. Now that the army is growing to millions and every family or so has a son in it, we find it easier to arouse interest. Sources of infection are being wiped out, prostitution suppressed, alcohol prohibited, education on the subject pro-

moted, and wholesome recreational facilities provided in camp and community. Imperfect as are our results, they represent, as far as we can tell, the best ever yet obtained in any part of the world. They come from only six months for organizing the proper machinery and another six months for installing it in camp and community. The next six months should make a still better showing.

Eight hundred cases of alcoholism have been cured during our camp experience. This is another condition that comes to us from civil life when the men are drafted. These men may backslide at some future time, when they are released from military supervision, but for the time being, at least, eight hundred lives have been rendered normal and temperate.

While this is an item on the credit side of the war ledger equivalent to a great military victory, it is in addition a gain which will have effect not only upon this war but upon the entire future of America. One great American pathologist advances good evidence to show that we are still suffering from the deleterious effect of the great increase in syphilis following the Civil War, effects which must be regarded as one of the expenses of the war. The country that sends the largest proportion of men home from the battles of this war clean and healthy will be the victor when the balance is struck fifty or one hundred years hence.

Today three events of enormous importance are transpiring without smoke or noise, hardly appreciated in their significance for the future. First, soldiers and sailors are learning the real facts about sex health and are preparing to be more intelligent parents. When the boys come marching home they will know more of the scientific and practical facts of sex hygiene than any similar group of men in the world and they will pass on to the next generation wholesome and sane information regarding healthful living. Second, our army is making the lowest record for venereal disease that has been made in its history and, what is more significant, the lowest of any mobilized army of the present day in the world. This means that our men are today not only more efficient fighters, but, even of greater importance, they will, upon returning to their families and communities, contribute less damage to the race than would have been possible had the United States not asserted itself for their protection against our most subtle enemy. The long trail of disease, dependency and crime will not follow our men after this war as in the wake of wars of other times. The social gains thus achieved can scarcely be conceived. We have no scale with which to measure the distress and the burdens which we trust will thus be escaped.

Third, our civilian communities are making progress in the education, legal and medical aspects of the program. There is a determination to wipe out venereal disease as a barrier to victory and to make and keep our communities safe for soldiers and sailors. Men and women are living in cleaner towns, are learning more about health, and are receiving better treatment for venereal disease than ever before, and this in spite of the fact that we are at war, or perhaps one should say, because we are at war. The load of mental and physical disease that will be avoided by these measures can only be overbalanced in importance by the additional positive gains that can be made in still further reducing vice and disease below its ante-bellum degree of prevalence.

It is, however, a time for work rather than for congratulations. We must maintain and improve our gains. War for us has just begun and the burdens are only just beginning to be felt. Our achievements are good but are not the best possible. Of this every one concerned feels certain. That army and navy which is the least syphilized will, other things being equal, win; and the nation which controls and dries up the race poisons of venereal disease has the best chance of surviving during the coming ages. The fight against venereal disease is a long campaign for a clean bill of health for the children and grandchildren of the boys now in the trenches.

WAR CAMP COMMUNITY SERVICE

BY JOSEPH LEE,
President of War Camp Community Service.

The War Camp Community Service is an integral part of the system established by the government of the United States for the care and training of its soldiers and sailors for this war. It is carried on by the Playground and Recreation Association of America at the request of the Commissions on Training Camp Activities appointed by the Secretary of War and the Secretary of the Navy. The work in no way duplicates that of any other organization. The war activities of the Young Men's Christian Association, of the Knights of Columbus, of the Jewish Welfare Board and of the American Library Association, all of them acting under the Com-

missions on Training Camp Activities and at their request, are wholly within the camps, while those of the War Camp Community Service are wholly outside. It is outside the camps that the greatest dangers exist and it is there that the greatest opportunities for exercising a beneficial influence are found.

Startling figures from reliable sources have been given upon the ravages of venereal disease in the armies of our allies and in our own army during the Spanish war, and whatever mistakes or exaggerations there may have been in any of these statements the danger is a most serious one. And it is a danger that cannot be wholly met by repressive measures. Disease is spread not wholly by professional prostitutes but very largely by young girls who have succumbed to the emotional conditions produced by the war.

Moreover our soldiers are going across the sea where we can no longer control their environment. It is the duty of the women of America, as the Secretary of War has said, to make for them an invisible armor which shall protect them wherever they may go, and it is a part of the business of the War Camp Community Service to mobilize and direct our women in the fashioning of this magic garment. The first American victory of the war will be won right here through this especial service.

THE SOLDIER'S SOCIAL NEEDS

To appreciate the place filled by the War Camp Community Service it is necessary to realize the social needs of the enlisted man. In the first place he is young—the soldier mostly from 21 to 31 years old and the sailor often as young as 17. In the second place, he is away from home and from his natural surroundings, separated from his friends and neighbors, from his church, his club, his business, and from all his familiar associations. He is deprived of his customary recreation, whether in the form of society or of athletics. He is cut off from the society of girls.

In short, the soldier or sailor in our camps and training stations is almost wholly separated from those natural human relations in which a normal life so largely consists, and this at an age at which these relations are of vital and absorbing interest. He is a tree uprooted from the soil and represents an attempt to create a human orchid. At the same time he is set to work at tasks that soon become distasteful: drill—walking up and down again—digging

trenches, doing housework and many other kinds of chores, and is exposed in the meantime to heat, cold, rain, mud and other uncomfortable conditions.

What, as a result of these conditions, will the young soldier do with his leisure time? His first desire will be to get away—anything for a change. Soldiers at Camp Devens will even go to Ayer Village for their recreation—and if a man will go there for that purpose he will go anywhere. As a rule he will go to town. Some will have a definite object, either good or bad, but the great majority will go without any definite purpose—simply to get away and find diversion of some sort. They are there looking for what may turn up, open to every suggestion. What they do will depend very largely upon what and whom they meet.

And remember that the soldier when he arrives in a strange city is practically invisible. He is away from his own home and from people who know him. He is in uniform, no longer an individual but an undistinguished atom of the mass. Nobody—at least nobody of his own world—will know what he does with himself, and nobody who does know will greatly care. Which of us can thus afford to dispense with the moral support which the social expectation of our own friends and neighbors and fellow-citizens affords?

And what has been the form of suggestion which society has hitherto presented to the soldier or sailor on leave? "Good" society has systematically turned away from him. Society as represented by its less desirable members, on the other hand—both male and female—has been only too cordial in its reception. The community, in short, has hitherto turned its worst side towards the enlisted man. It is the business of the War Camp Community Service to reverse this attitude. And such a change is as much in the interest of the civil community as in that of the soldier. The atmosphere which it creates for him will be the one in which it itself must live. The two will rise or fall together.

HOW THE NEED IS MET

The War Camp Community Service meets the social hunger of the enlisted man in the following ways: First, he finds at information booths in the station when he comes to town—and sees in posters and circulars before he leaves—directions as to the better sources of entertainment that the community affords. He is told where to

find the movies, theatres, libraries and museums, the swimming pools, gymnasiums, athletic fields and the clubs provided for his use.

Second, municipal authorities are induced to give band concerts and to throw in all kinds of athletic opportunities for the use of the officers and men. A census of the men is obtained, through the coöperation of the commanding officer, giving the church, fraternity and college affiliation of all the men and their favorite sport and hobby. Churches are stimulated to provide organ recitals and to invite members of their own denomination to their services, and churches and other organizations to send special invitations to social occasions of all kinds. In New York City the Catholic churches alone have opened twenty soldiers' clubs. The hospitality of all the churches in the camp communities has been remarkable.

When necessary, the War Camp Community Service has itself opened clubs for soldiers and sailors, with opportunities for smoking, reading, listening to music and playing games, for getting a shower bath, buying food and soft drinks, and (a provision especially important in the case of sailors) with a place to pass the night. Games between the military on the one side and civil organizations on the other, the proceeds usually going to buy bats and balls and other athletic goods for the soldiers, are an important means of establishing good relations. These young men are often homesick, and homesickness is a real disease, causing loss of sleep and appetite and depressing the tone of the whole system. Man is a homing animal as truly as a bird or a fox. From the cave man down we have been built around this relation, and the loss of it is the cutting of a tap root.

In this unit of the man and his home the parts are to a certain extent interchangeable. He finds some satisfaction of his need in visiting someone else's home. The War Camp Community Service has greatly stimulated the inviting of soldiers and sailors home to dinner and to pass Sunday, has investigated the character of thousands of invitations, and has seen them properly distributed.

To facilitate the meeting of officers and men with their own relatives and friends, with their own wives if they are married, the services of the Traveler's Aid of the Young Women's Christian Association have been called in and have been most effective, the one in meeting women relatives at the stations and the other in providing hostess houses in the camps. Where necessary the War Camp

Community Service has supplemented the work of these agencies and it has also secured in each community a list of lodging places carefully scrutinized and in many instances regulated as to prices charged.

Another normal need of these young men is the society of girls. It has been assumed in the past that soldiers and sailors, unlike the rest of mankind, can have no relation with women except an immoral one, that there is no choice for them between the life of a libertine and that of an ascetic. We all know that this is not true of the rest of us, that the effect of the society of good women is wholly good, that one of the best influences in our lives is the desire to merit their esteem, and that the strongest influence for purity in the life of a young man is the hope of being some day worthy of the love of a good woman. It has been demonstrated by the War Camp Community Service that the putting on of a uniform does not reverse the attributes of human nature in this respect.

To meet this need of girls' society, the War Camp Community Service, besides securing invitations to people's homes, is stimulating the churches and all kinds of social organizations to ask the soldiers and sailors to parties and receptions of all sorts, to which the girls always go on invitation of a carefully selected committee and which are carefully chaperoned. Our soldiers and sailors will seek and find female society in any case. The War Camp Community Service has provided, for the first time in history, that they shall find it in a form that does them not harm but infinite good. In short, what the War Camp Community Service is providing is a balanced social ration. Such a ration is the soldier's one great social need and it is one which the camp itself, even with all the social resources that can be brought to it, can never supply.

Besides bringing soldiers and girls together under good influences, a most important activity has been the organizing of girls into clubs, the purpose of which has been the creating of an *esprit de corps* among them with a high social standard and a high ideal of the part that the women of America are called upon to play in their relation to our soldiers. Club buildings are provided in many communities and the girls take part in all kinds of Red Cross and other war work, besides giving occasional small and carefully conducted parties for the soldiers. The Young Women's Christian Association has furnished a large proportion of the expert workers for

this service. What the War Camp Community Service is thus doing for the officers and men is a new thing under the sun, a thing never before tried in any country. That it is already a success is the testimony of officers and men and others familiar with the work.

The War Camp Community Service is supported by voluntary contributions. The appropriations are made by a budget committee, consisting of Horace E. Andrews, Clarence M. Clark, Henry W. de Forrest, Myron T. Herrick, Joseph Lee and Charles D. Norton. The budget for the coming year (November 1, 1918 to November 1, 1919) is fifteen million dollars, and the quota for each locality is 15 per cent of the amount assessed upon it by the Red Cross in its campaign for one hundred million.

WORKING WITH MEN OUTSIDE THE CAMPS

BY WILLIAM H. ZINSSER,

Director, Section on Men's Work, Social Hygiene Division, Commission on Training Camp Activities.

In the Draft Act of May 18, 1917, two sections were inserted numbered 12 and 13, which authorized the Secretary of War, and subsequently the Secretary of the Navy, to do everything deemed necessary to prohibit the sale or consumption of liquor and the practising of prostitution within the confines of army camps and navy stations, and within a definite zone around them.

By combining military discipline and strict policing with the conviction that these soldiers,—men in uniform,—are like all other human beings subject to ennui and to loneliness, remarkable results have been attained. The liquor vendor and the loose woman are barred, and in their place, playgrounds, smileage theatres, libraries, hostess-houses and the recreational huts of the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Men's Hebrew Association, and the Knights of Columbus substituted. Song leaders, athletic directors, musicians and professors all vie with each other in supplying the demands of the men, both serious and frivolous, in whatever field they are made. One rather amusing result is the receipt by commanding officers of letters from indignant wives, sisters and sweethearts asking "Why doesn't Johnny come home when he

can?" The reason is simple,—Johnny is having too good a time; he's working enough and playing enough and does not want to go back.

Whether the making of our camps into "hard military schools with a country club on the side," has decreased the ability of our men to actually fight, is being answered on the historic battle fields of the Marne now. A comparison of the American army's venereal disease rate with that of any other army, past or present, makes clear what the government's combined policy of education, treatment and punishment is resulting in. The American Expeditionary Force, with the lowest rate ever known in history, is the answer.

In actual service "over there" these facilities take care of practically all the soldier's time not spent at his "work." In this country, however, a different problem must also be met. No matter how good a time "Johnny" is having, and notwithstanding every effort which can possibly be made to keep him satisfied in the camps, a time comes when he must get away, see the sights, and forget the military side of life for a few hours. A new phase, and one of direct interest to civilians, is thus developed.

When a soldier is granted a furlough, when he has shown his pass to the guard at the gate, and is out,—free for a time from the enforced and arduous grind which military training is even at best, the holiday spirit is in him; he is "out for a good time." The sort of good time he has is going to depend on two things: his background, moral, mental and physical; and upon what is offered by the community he visits.

It is one of the great failures of society, past and present, that, on the subjects of rational sex hygiene, prostitution, and venereal disease, the very great majority of young men have no background whatsoever, excepting one supplied by the streets and by obscene stories. Following out the same line of reasoning pursued in the camp amusements, *i.e.*, recognizing that the men are after all *men*, it is at once evident that intelligent coöperation cannot be expected from them, unless they are given intelligent reasons for it. In other words, since the army and navy cannot and will not tolerate conditions such as have existed in civilian communities for generations, it was up to the government to supply this background not given by their civil life.

Accordingly, a particular section of the Social Hygiene Divi-

sion, Commissions on Training Camp Activities, was constituted to do this work in the training camps; to educate these boys and men on the vital subjects of reproduction, sex hygiene, venereal diseases, etc., in the teaching of which their own parents and home communities have been so woefully negligent. As a result it can now be truthfully said that there is no man in the army or navy for any length of time who does not have a background of some kind; does not know what the venereal diseases are and the essential facts about their transmission.

Notwithstanding what they know, freedom and relaxation are very tempting after the grind of the camp. Men on leave want company very naturally: a street corner with nothing to do near it is at its best not very amusing. They want companionship and particularly personal attention. They are very prone to take it in whatever form it is offered. In other words, a soldier or sailor will almost always take a town *as he finds it*. The responsibility of civilian communities becomes at once clear; a responsibility vitally affecting the health, discipline and morale of our troops.

NECESSITY OF COMMUNITY COÖPERATION

In the typical case, a man is beyond ordinary military control when he passes the cantonment line on furlough. Civilian authority and usage takes its place. Therefore it is an essential desire of the government that the maximum of coöperation exist between contiguous military and civilian zones. In fact the whole government scheme for combating venereal disease demands efficient coöperation on the part of civilians, if it is not to be to a considerable extent nullified.

That civilians and communities would offer this coöperation to the fullest possible extent when they understood the real facts was not doubted. But how were the several score million civilians in this country to be reached; to be aroused and awakened into action? To be sure, the in many ways remarkable spirit of coöperation which has pervaded the whole nation since the war began, the general recognition of certain basic conditions affecting us all without exception, and the much more tolerant attitude of the general public, promised much.

But this was not sufficient. The questions "Do communities really realize their grave responsibility? Are they aware that the

health and morals of their soldier and sailor visitors are in their care? Are they making themselves worthy of this trust, of the government's faith in and dependence on their ability and willingness to cope with this vital problem?"—these questions were still pertinent. In fact, many cases at first seemed to indicate a decided "no," as the answer. Old customs, out-of-date regulations and habits of mind prevented the thinking people of communities from grasping the true significance either of the government's far-sighted and history-making stand, or of their vital part in backing it up. For so many generations have all things pertaining to sex, reproduction, prostitution, venereal disease, etc., been considered "dirty," —not fit to be touched publicly by the best men and women in our country,—that even the shock of this war seemed unable to break through the barrier. And this has happened despite the years of hard and thankless work which such organizations as the American Social Hygiene Association have been doing, which has laid a foundation of the greatest assistance to the government, but has not markedly affected the attitude of the general public.

The degree of success the government's program was to attain, however, directly depended upon the coöperation supplied by civilian communities, particularly those within a reasonable distance from cantonments. By "reasonable distance" it must be understood is meant not ten or fifteen miles, but seventy-five to one hundred miles or more. The railroad and the "jitney" have made it possible for men to travel such distances with less time and trouble than it took the Civil War fighter to go ten miles.

In other words, to assure the maximum of success to its work, the government must reach *every* community of any size within a fifty or hundred mile radius of every camp and cantonment in this country. To all intents and purposes, this meant reaching the whole country, and at the earliest moment possible. A committee was therefore organized, first as a sub-committee of the Committee for Civilian Coöperation in Combating Venereal Diseases, of the Council of National Defense; and later, to make the work even more effective, taken into the Commissions on Training Camp Activities as the Section on Men's Work of the Social Hygiene Division, whose duty it was to get this subject before communities and thus secure their active, intelligent coöperation.

How to do this was the question. The people to be reached

would not read the "copy," even if papers did print it, which was and still is extremely questionable. Only one way seemed open, namely that of writing carefully prepared letters with accompanying material to the leading citizens in communities, and through their interest thus aroused, reaching the necessary officials and the general public. The enormity of this task may be imagined when the size of the country, the number of towns and villages it contains, are considered. No other way existed, however: so early in the summer of 1917 this work was begun. Lists were laboriously collected, suitable material gradually assembled, and letters written.

Particularly at a time like the present, citizens of prominence are deluged with appeals of all sorts and kinds. Very naturally the majority of these find their way to the wastebasket. Unless the busy man or woman is "sold," to employ the familiar advertising phrase, in the first few lines, it is almost certain that he will not reply. Especially is this applicable to any discussion of such a subject as venereal disease, which to the ordinary citizen, is unrefined, and therefore for *others* to look after. It is only with the greatest of effort and skill that the ignorance and apathy of the typical American is overcome; that he is aroused to work. Almost invariably he goes on the easily arrived at, but never investigated conclusion that *his* town is no worse than any other, in fact a little better, and that his mayor and officials are "honorable men with families," who will never tolerate anything which should not be. He knows in a more or less vague way that his city has laws of some kind dealing with prostitution, so, of course, "they must be adequate and enforced."

The question, why not depend on the mayors and law enforcing officials is very natural, and just as easy to answer. Regrettable as it may be, it cannot be gainsaid that a considerable number of duly elected civic officials are entirely unfitted to fill the positions they hold. Whether this is from ignorance, corruption or what not, is of no importance. The fact remains. No way existed for "getting a line" on these men, for gauging their sincerity. A civic official is almost invariably responsive to the wishes of the majority of his constituents, as he understands those wishes. It follows that if through correspondence and other means the government could awaken the influential citizens of any community the mayor would fall in with them and institute the proper "clean-up."

Of course, all officials are not of this type by any means: many of them have stood for enlightened ideas in dealing with prostitution and the other phases of the venereal disease problem. Their help could be counted on in any event.

Because of all these factors, the scheme above outlined was adopted. To date, many tens of thousands of letters have been written and several thousand active and interested correspondents from all quarters of the United States obtained. When aroused to the enormity and seriousness of this problem, the citizen's first query is "What can *I* do?" The answer was contained in a notable four-page leaflet called "Suggestions for a Citizens' Program for Combating Prostitution and Venereal Diseases." This leaflet is, as its title indicates, only a "suggestion." The personnel of a satisfactory committee of citizens, so far as professions go, is outlined; also the following divisions under which its work naturally falls: law enforcement, control of venereal diseases (medical), public education, protective work for girls, recreation work.

Next, this leaflet mentions those local agencies whose help is indispensable, namely, the chief of police, the city health officer, the school board, the mayor, the leading citizens, and lastly, it gives some concise, definite information, of general educational value on venereal diseases. With such an outline to follow, citizen committees have organized successfully and begun work on the problem of cleaning up their own communities,—wherever possible with the mayor's assistance, but if necessary in spite of him.

It is not even pretended that final solutions, or 100 per cent efficient results have been attained. But that the whole disgraceful problem is known to many, many thousands of citizens who never heard of it before, and that the general moral tone of many cities has been raised, and their citizens made receptive to further work, is beyond a doubt true. Such committees of citizens act both as spurs to the local officials, and as assistants to the government law-enforcement representatives, now working with ever increasing effectiveness throughout the country. They also form live points of contact with the general public for the spreading of further information on the whole subject. Through their reports, supplementing those of the government field men, it is possible to keep in close touch with those conditions which surround the soldier on leave, so that where necessary, action can be demanded from the

mayor, under threat of federal interference. In these and other ways they are doing their bit, not only to safeguard the man in uniform, but also the citizen of today,—the soldier of tomorrow, whose health is and should be safeguarded.

COMMITTEES AS MEANS OF EDUCATION

Perhaps the greatest value of these committees, however, lies in their possibilities as a medium of education. Under the stress of the present, the government is able to deal with facts and figures relative to venereal conditions in a frank and open way never before possible. It is doing this, and these thousands of correspondents, members of citizens' committees or only individuals, are being educated to a new attitude, a new point of view. They are thus realizing gradually the true significance of the government's stand, and how it both depends upon them and effects them.

This one phase, coupled with the exemplary and, in many cases, uniform state laws which have passed under federal guidance or suggestion, is certainly one of the wonders worked by the Great War and which makes the present perhaps the most noteworthy era in the whole story of these age-old plagues of man. A new page in their history has been opened; one bright with possibilities for the welfare of humanity. In a way never so clearly marked before, it has been brought home to all the nations now participating in the great struggle that *army* really means *nation*; that the "behind the lines" work is just as vital as the actual battle-line fighting. It has been made equally clear that effective man power is one of the most vital factors in the successful prosecution of the war. The side with the preponderance of effectives, other things being equal, assumes the offensive,—which is synonymous with ultimate success.

Very naturally, therefore, after the more pressing case of the health and effectiveness of men in uniform had been considered, and machinery started, the question of the efficiency of the man behind the gun arose. The draft had shown a tremendous venereal rate in our civilian young men. Of the more than 80,000 cases of venereal disease treated by the army to date, *the large majority have been brought in from civil life*. To the question, did this condition affect our industrial efficiency, there could be only one answer—it must.

In the army, the scheme of combining education with treatment and punishment has given the remarkable results above noted. Suitably modified, and with the punishment clause left out, of course, this same general idea was utilized in the preparation of an "Industrial Program," through which the great mass of workers, the industrial back-bone of the country, could be reached. The plan of the program is simple. Employers of any considerable number of men are written to, a complete summary of the program being included in the letter, the intention being not only to put the facts of the case before him, but also the remedial measures proposed by the government.

These measures are:—

1. Distribution of literature, posting of bulletins, placards, etc.
2. Confidential interviews between employes and superintendent, foreman or other individual entrusted with the execution of the plan.
3. Examination by competent doctors of all employes who have or think they have a venereal disease.
4. Investigation of health conditions in the families of infected married men, and provision for care of wives and children.
5. Disposition of cases for treatment either by individual physicians specially engaged, or at a hospital clinic, or plant clinic.
6. Provision of leave of absence with pay for employes who are in the infectious stages of a venereal disease, with the requirement that they report daily to the superintendent or foreman.
7. A certificate of each treatment signed by the treating physician should be required of every patient.

One of the great errors hitherto made in work on this subject, has been in the type of literature prepared. Unless particularly interested, the typical individual is only going to read such material as is printed in his own vernacular. Almost without exception, social hygiene subjects have been treated, up to the present, in an exceptionally "highbrow" manner, which was all right for the student, but completely above the ordinary worker. This literature was written, therefore, in the language of the everyday man. The placards and booklets are accurate and true, not at all involved, and have as a result proven immensely popular. In putting this plan into effect, the following sequence is the correct one:

On the day a pamphlet called "Your Job and Your Future" (of which in four weeks over 120,000 have already been ordered) is given out, and placards headed "Beware!" posted in all places where the men gather, a notice is put up for all employes to read,

which states that "at the request of the War Department, the _____ Manufacturing Company, is helping in the campaign against venereal diseases,—gonorrhea and syphilis," and which particularly emphasizes the need for coöperation of the workers, the plant, and the government. This notice serves to center the attention of all employes on the material which is given them, and stimulates interest. The booklets are then given out to each employe, placards posted and, as is invariably the case, the numerous cases uncovered given accurate information in the shape of circulars included in the plan, and either given the proper care by the plant doctor or referred to a place where it can be obtained. Follow-up material is also provided in the shape of pay-envelope enclosures, which being distributed now and then, keep the whole problem alive.

The question of medical treatment is a very vital one, and one which changes with each locality or situation. That some sort of adequate medical attention is necessary, goes without saying. The government's material is very emphatic in its warning against "quacks" and their ilk, but so long as something better is not provided, they are bound to continue under one guise or another. The obvious answer is a clinic, properly equipped. The vital need of some such provision in the application of this scheme is time and again emphasized. Depending upon the size, it can be operated by the single plant alone, or in conjunction with other ones in the same locality. Or, if any state, municipal or private clinic is already in existence, arrangements can be made with it to care for the plant cases. The main feature is that some provision should be made, the details being left to subsequent correspondence.

In the development of this feature, the coöperation of every local and state board of health is being sought. Already, such representative ones as the State Boards of Massachusetts and Minnesota have recognized the opportunity for coördinating and making more effective their work, and have organized to assist the employers of their respective states. Thus, the beginning of a new alliance against these enemies of mankind is made; an alliance which should go a long way towards guaranteeing a permanent, effective national campaign. Perhaps the whole program is best described by a quotation from a leading industrial publication, as "a plan, unquestionably in the forefront of any similar effort for the essential upbuilding of the health of labor."

Notwithstanding all these movements and in spite of interested citizens and officials everywhere, the public generally was largely ignorant of what was going on. There has seldom been anything more romantic than the cool way this country has overturned tradition, "rolled up its sleeves," and faced the whole disgraceful problem of venereal diseases. Stories of the first magnitude could be written about it, but they are not. Why? Because unless so veiled and beclouded as to become largely meaningless they would not be printed.

In American industries it is the custom frequently to publish a "House Organ," a little trade booklet going to employes and customers, often with an enormous circulation. An appeal has recently been made to them. Would they publish a prepared story, at the request of the War Department, dealing with the Venereal Disease Campaign?

An emphatic affirmative was the almost unanimous reply and in two months about one hundred fifty of these little magazines have printed the story called "V. D., The Enemy at Home," the history of the government's program against venereal diseases, in story form. No terms were camouflaged, yet almost without exception it was printed verbatim. It has already attained a circulation, by this means, of over 1,500,000, and is still mounting.

If this has shown nothing else, the fact is clear that where editors are not afraid of offending their advertisers, they will gladly print this sort of material. The response being generally awakened (by this story) from the public also makes plain that today people want information; that the time is rapidly approaching when the veil of prudery which has hidden the seriousness of this problem from the sight of even broad-minded, sensible people, will be gone.

Nothing final has been attained in this civilian work, nor was it expected. The general bases of a program of common sense, conservation, efficiency and prevention have been laid, chiefly through the agency of the present emergency, and on them will be built the constructive work of the future. In this there is a part for every agency from the federal government to the individual. In direct proportion to the coöperation of these many factors will be the rapidity with which success is attained.

THE WAR WORK OF THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES

BY JOHN R. MOTT,

General Secretary, National War Work Council, Young Men's Christian Associations of the United States.

When America entered the war, there was created the National War Work Council of Young Men's Christian Associations. It was designed to unite the national, state and local organizations of this movement in order to prevent undesirable duplication of effort and in order to make possible the most efficient service of the men in the American Army and Navy. Its work was given an official status by the following executive order:

WAR DEPARTMENT, WASHINGTON.
May 9, 1917.

GENERAL ORDERS, NO. 57.

II.—The following Order by the President, issued April 26, 1917, is published to the Army for the information and guidance of all concerned:

The Young Men's Christian Association has, in the present emergency, as under similar circumstances in the past, tendered its services for the benefit of enlisted men in both arms of the service. This organization is prepared by experience, approved methods, and assured resources to serve especially the troops in camp and field. It seems best for the interest of the service that it shall continue as a voluntary civilian organization; however, the results obtained are so beneficial and bear such a direct relation to efficiency, inasmuch as the Association provision contributes to the happiness, content, and morale of the personnel, that in order to unify the civilian betterment activities in the Army and further the work of the organization that has demonstrated its ability to render a service desired by both officers and men, official recognition is hereby given the Young Men's Christian Association as a valuable adjunct and asset to the service. Officers are enjoined to render the fullest practicable assistance and co-operation in the maintenance and extension of the Association, both at permanent posts and stations, and in camp and field. To this end attention of officers is called to the precedent and policy already established in

- (1) An Act, approved May 31, 1902, giving authority to the Secretary of War to grant permission by revocable license for the erection and maintenance of Association buildings on military reservations for the promotion of the social, physical, intellectual, and moral welfare of enlisted men.
- (2) An Act of Congress making appropriation for the Army for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1911, and referred to in General Orders, No. 54, War De-

partment, 1910, wherein the furnishing of heat and light for the above-mentioned buildings was authorized.

(3) General Orders, No. 39, War Department, 1914 (paragraph 80, Compilation of Orders, 1881-1915), wherein commanding officers were enjoined (a) to provide all proper facilities practicable to aid the Association; (b) to assign suitable sites; (c) to supply transportation for Association tentage and equipment; (d) to care for and police Association tents and grounds; (e) to accord accredited secretaries the privilege of the purchase of supplies from the Quartermaster's Department; (f) to furnish, where practicable, tentage and shelter.

(2586501 A-A. G. O.)

By order of the Secretary of War,

H. L. SCOTT,

Major-General, Chief of Staff.

Official:

H. P. McCAIN, *the Adjutant-General.*

In addition, the following general orders were issued by the Navy Department:

NAVY DEPARTMENT, WASHINGTON.

July 26, 1917.

GENERAL ORDERS, No. 313.

1. The Young Men's Christian Association, in addition to its large service to enlisted men during times of peace, has greatly increased its facilities and efforts during the present need represented by the increased forces in the Navy and Marine Corps, and the calling of the Naval Reserve and Naval Militia. This organization is prepared by experience, approved methods, and assured resources to serve our enlisted men. The results obtained by this voluntary civilian organization are so beneficial and bear such a direct relationship to efficiency, inasmuch as the Association provision contributes to the happiness, content and morale of the personnel, that in order to unify the civilian betterment activities in the Navy and further the work of the organization that has demonstrated its ability to render a service desired by both officers and men, cordial recognition is hereby given the Young Men's Christian Association as a valuable adjunct and asset to the service.

2. Officers are urged to render the fullest practicable assistance and co-operation in the maintenance and extension of the Association at the regular Navy yards and stations, and at such other stations as may be established on either a temporary or permanent basis. To this end it is desired that officers, ashore and afloat, extend all possible consideration to accredited representatives of the Association. This should include:

(1) Authorization by commandants for the erection of buildings at the various Navy yards and stations in accordance with instructions already issued, and the provision of heat and light for said buildings.

(2) Co-operation in facilitating accredited representatives in their access to Navy yards and stations and to ships and temporary camps.

(3) The granting of commissary privileges where practicable.

- (4) Furnishing where practicable tentage for shelter when in temporary camps.
- (5) Transportation on naval craft, when necessary, of secretaries and supplies.

The National War Work Council is composed of nearly two hundred leading citizens representing virtually every state of the Union and meets approximately every three or four months. The Executive Committee, composed of between twenty and thirty members, holds fortnightly meetings. The Council has its headquarters at 347 Madison Avenue, New York City. Its work is conducted through the following bureaus: Finance, Personnel, Materiel, Transportation, Religious Work, Educational Work, Physical Work, Entertainment, Purchasing. In addition to these bureaus, which center at the New York headquarters, there is a regional organization in each of the six military departments, with headquarters at Boston, New York, Atlanta, Chicago, San Antonio, and San Francisco.

The War Work Council is conducting work at present at nearly one thousand centers in the United States and in the various American possessions. The work is carried on almost entirely in buildings erected for Association purposes and is under the leadership of a staff of over three thousand secretaries, including those at the national and various regional headquarters. The program of work includes the various physical, social, educational and religious activities. The work is on a broad basis, the facilities and privileges being open alike to officers and men of all arms of the service, regardless of religious affiliation. Satisfactory coöperative relations exist between the Young Men's Christian Association and the other agencies which are seeking to serve the enlisted men, namely, the Government Chaplains, the Knights of Columbus and the Jewish Welfare Board within the camps, and the Young Women's Christian Association, the War Camp Community Service of the Recreation and Playground Association, and the various denominational and other organizations at work outside the camps. The Association as well as these various organizations both within and outside the camps are coördinated and helped by the Commission on Training Camp Activities of the War Department.

Besides the work in the camps and cantonments and at various regular and special army and navy stations at home, the Association seeks to serve the enlisted men while travelling on the var-

ious troop trains and also on the ocean transports. The work of the Young Men's Christian Association on behalf of the American army and navy overseas will soon become the most extensive part of its activity. Already it is conducting work in over seven hundred Association buildings, hotels, cafés and canteens in France, as well as in scores of others in the British Isles and in Italy. The staff of Association workers in connection with the American Expeditionary Forces numbers nearly three thousand men and women. General Pershing has asked the Association to conduct the post exchange, and women workers are used especially in connection with this phase of the work.

Before America entered the war, the International Committee of Young Men's Christian Associations had developed a large work on behalf of the soldiers of Allied armies and of prisoners of war. This has continued to expand. The most extensive part of it is that on behalf of the French army, where the work is conducted under the name Foyer du Soldat. Over five hundred buildings have been established or equipped for this service and a staff of many hundreds of American and French workers are in charge. The plan is to enlarge this most helpful ministry until, at some two thousand points, its helpful influence will cover the entire French army. The work is carried on with the full and hearty approval of the French War Ministry, and leading French military authorities have borne testimony as to its great value in maintaining the morale and promoting the comfort of the soldiers. A similar work is being furthered by the American Associations throughout the Italian army, where these activities are conducted under the name Casa del Soldato. The American Associations are likewise coöperating in introducing such work in the Belgian and Portuguese armies in France as well as among the Chinese and other labor battalions. Its activities are widespread among the armies in Egypt, Palestine, Mesopotamia, Macedonia and East Africa. One of the largest and most valuable parts of the work is that in Russia.

A most significant and beneficent phase of the war work of the American Young Men's Christian Associations has been that which they have conducted from almost the beginning of the war among the prisoners of war in all of the belligerent countries. It is estimated that there are now between five and six million prisoners. The American Associations minister directly or indirectly to nearly

all of them. Their work has been introduced into the countries one by one until now this practical service is being rendered in every country having military prisoners. The Association does not conduct relief work among the American prisoners, as that is the distinctive service of the American Red Cross, but it does continue to place at their disposal all of its facilities in the way of recreational sports, educational, social and religious work. Among the prisoners of other nationalities the Association is still called upon to do a large amount of relief work as well as to conduct its regular program of activities.

The Young Men's Christian Association is conducting its war work at present on an annual budget of approximately fifty million dollars, but in view of the many new demands and the inevitably enlarged plans for its work, it will require for the coming year considerably more than one hundred million dollars.

WAR WORK OF YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION

BY A. ESTELLE PADDOCK,

Publicity Director, War Work Council, Young Women's Christian Association.

A million and a half men were in the American Army a year after this country entered the war. A million and a half women at the same time were employed on war orders in factories. A million other women were being speeded up in industries affected by the war. As the size of the army increases, the number of women in industry increases at the same rate. Each man who is withdrawn from factory work must be replaced by a woman. This vast industrial army of women forms the second line of defense.

This sudden influx brings about a shifting and changing of the women already wage-earners. They as well as the newcomers find themselves in strange environments. Ten million women in this country are now facing the wage-earners' problems.

The Young Women's Christian Association feels strongly its responsibility toward all women affected by the war. Its fifty years' experience in housing, feeding and recreation is brought to bear upon the situation. The War Work Council, now numbering

a hundred and thirty members, was called into existence in June, 1917. The members are chosen from the whole United States. Its officers are: Mrs. James Stewart Cushman, chairman; Mrs. John R. Mott and Mrs. William Adams Brown, vice-chairmen; Mrs. Howard Morse, secretary, and Mrs. Henry P. Davison, treasurer. Among other members are: Mrs. Robert Lansing, Mrs. Josephus Daniels, Mrs. Leonard Wood, Mrs. John French, Mrs. Percy V. Pennybacker, Miss Mary E. Woolley, Mrs. Robert Bacon.

The Y. W. C. A. has been asked by the government through the Woman's Branch of the Industrial Service Section of the Ordnance Department to organize constructive recreation for women in the twenty-two federal industrial reservations. The same work is also being extended to about one hundred cost plus plants now taken over by the government. Miss Ernestine Friedman of the Industrial Department of the Y. W. C. A. War Work Council is in charge of the work. Social activities had been started by the first of July in Bloomfield, New Jersey; Bridgeport, Connecticut; Bush Terminal, Brooklyn; Carney's Point, New Jersey; Hopewell, Virginia; Long Island City, New York; Nashville, Tennessee; and Williamsburg, Virginia. Thousands of girls will be employed in some of these cantonments.

The women employed in the federal industrial reservations include all types and ages. They are teachers, high school girls and industrial girls: many foreigners are employed.

Life in a munition cantonment is necessarily abnormal. The girls have no responsibilities outside their working hours. In addition, many of them must face the problems of leaving home, of loneliness, of dangerous fatigue, of lack of suitable recreation and the responsibility of family support. Under such conditions it becomes especially important to fill the leisure time with constructive, continuous community recreation and service. Local industrial service clubs are organized in each center and all the clubs are included in the great industrial army. Model recreation buildings are being put up. These contain a large living-room, smaller sitting-rooms, living quarters for the secretaries, a gymnasium in one wing and a cafeteria in the other. One executive secretary is appointed to each center in addition to a recreation leader and often an assistant secretary.

Women war workers in many cases will meet industrial as well

as personal problems. Changing industrial conditions may mean in some places unemployment, unaccustomed tasks, irregular hours, unhygienic conditions, speeding and rush work, overtime under guise of patriotism and even the repeal of laws governing hours of work and age of workers. Conditions like these invariably result in unsettled standards, obliterating high ideals, letting down personal restraint and permitting loose social relationships. Wherever bad industrial and social conditions prevail the labor turnover is extensive, efficiency is diminished and output falls off.

To prevent this disaster, the Y. W. C. A. coöperates with employers and with girls to uphold high standards. Leaders with the right knowledge of industrial problems are being trained in courses conducted by local associations, industrial councils and at the National Training School in New York City. During the summer the Y. W. C. A. coöperated with Bryn Mawr College in a course for industrial supervisors under the leadership of Dr. Susan Kingsbury.

The widespread education of the general public in industrial standards is necessary to the protection of women, their safety, their health and their moral welfare. The association through all its many avenues impresses upon people in general that efficiency is dependent upon the eight-hour day, one day's rest in seven, minimum wage, equal pay for equal work, collective bargaining as expressed in trade unionism and the abolition of night work for women.

Besides these activities in ammunition factories, the Y. W. C. A. carries on other enterprises for the well-being of employed women, and other women affected by the war. About six hundred association workers are employed on war work in the United States. They are social workers, both white and colored, club and recreation leaders, physical directors, dietitians, business women, household and employment experts, educationalists and physicians. Association members now number about four hundred thousand.

The Y. W. C. A. deals with the problem of industrial housing in several ways. In many cities the local associations already have buildings. Room registry bureaus have been established in Buffalo, New York; Chester, Pennsylvania; Dayton, Ohio and other cities. Any woman entering a strange city can apply at the local Y. W. C. A. for assistance in finding room and board.

Emergency dormitories have been built by the War Work

Council in Army City, Kansas, for girls employed in the Camp Funston laundry, and at Deming, New Mexico, where Camp Cody is situated. A model dormitory is being built in Charleston at the request of Secretary Daniels for women employed in making uniforms. A similar house has been built in Camp Sherman Annex, Chillicothe, Ohio. With slight modifications, these plans can be utilized anywhere to house women comfortably and economically. The Housing Committee of the Council, of which Mrs. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., is chairman, after an exhaustive investigation of the subject, presented to Secretary Baker memoranda in regard to the housing of girls engaged in war industries.

Ninety-seven girls' club centers have been established in cities and towns adjacent to camps. Eleven of these are for colored girls. One hundred and thirty-five trained club and recreation leaders are employed. Everything that is done by the Y. W. C. A. for white women is done also for colored women. All their activities are under the leadership of colored college women and social workers.

From the beginning the War Work Council planned to include not only American women affected by the war, but because of the pleas from France and Russia, the first budget contained an item for work in Europe. Administrative, industrial and recreational secretaries were sent to place their experience at the disposal of the Russian women. In France the activities have fallen into two general divisions—social work among American war relief workers and coöperation with French women in work for their own people. The object, in France as in Russia, is to coöperate with the women of these countries developing such phases of social service for women as will meet war conditions and at the same time become permanent foundations for future work.

Hotel Petrograd has been opened in Paris, for American women war relief workers, at 33 rue Caumartin. Another hostess house has been opened at Tours. A room in each recreation hut for nurses established at all the American base hospitals, is provided with a Y. W. C. A. social worker. Three hostess houses to lodge the American Signal Corps women have been organized at the request of army officials.

The Foyers des Alliees are recreation centers for French munition women workers, for women otherwise employed by the French government, and for French women, established by the American Y. W. C. A. at the request of the French Government.

The war activities of the Y. W. C. A. may be summarized as follows:

IN THE UNITED STATES

Establishing Club and Recreation Work for Girls, including a Patriotic League, now numbering 400,000, white and colored.

Providing Emergency Housing for employed girls and women. Five centers have been provided to date.

Establishing Hostess Houses in or near army and navy camps for women relatives and friends of the army and navy. Sixty-one are in use. Twenty-five others are authorized. Thirteen of these are for colored people.

Establishing Work in Colored Communities affected by the war, led by colored college women and trained social workers.

Conducting a Bureau for Foreign-born Women, providing translations in eighteen languages of needed bulletins, interpreters in army camps, training for Polish women for reconstruction work in Poland, and a home service for non-English speaking women.

Providing and Financing Social Leaders for women under the direction of the War Department Commission on Training Camp Activities.

Establishing Room Registries and War Service Centers in cities employing girls in war industries. The Government has asked the Y. W. C. A. for leaders in twenty-two of its industrial cantonments.

Maintaining a Bureau of Social Morality which coöperates with the War Department in furnishing a Corps of Lecturers on social standards in war time; issues literature.

Publishing a War Work Bulletin and other educational literature for women in war time.

Maintaining a Bureau of Volunteer Workers.

IN FRANCE

Provides social workers, recreation leaders, physical directors and cafeteria managers; foyers, and hostess houses.

Working with

American women in France (nineteen centers), Nurses, Signal corps (women), other English-speaking women with the American army

French women (at the request of the French Government) (nine centers)

Working in munitions factories, in stores and in French war offices.

IN RUSSIA

Club, cafeteria and educational work in three centers for Russian women.

SPECIAL CATHOLIC ACTIVITIES IN WAR SERVICE

BY JOHN J. BURKE, C.S.P.

A review of the Catholic war relief work of the country which is to be limited to the space of a magazine article must necessarily be brief. When we touch the subject we immediately include a body of our countrymen numbering over nineteen millions of souls.

Immediately after our entrance into the war, the Catholic Church of the United States through its archbishops sent the following message to the President:

Standing firmly upon our solid Catholic tradition and history, from the very foundation of this nation, we affirm in this hour of stress and trial our most sacred and sincere loyalty and patriotism toward our country, our government, and our flag.

Moved to the very depths of our hearts by the stirring appeal of the President of the United States, and by the action of our national Congress, we accept wholeheartedly and unreservedly the decree of that legislative authority proclaiming this country to be in a state of war.

We have prayed that we might be spared the dire necessity of entering the conflict, but now that war has been declared we bow in obedience to the summons to bear our part in it with fidelity, with courage and with the spirit of sacrifice which as loyal citizens we are bound to manifest for the defense of the most sacred rights, and the welfare of the whole nation.

Acknowledging gladly the gratitude that we have always felt for the protection of our spiritual liberty and the freedom of our Catholic institutions, under the flag, we pledge our devotion and our strength in the maintenance of our country's glorious leadership, in those possessions and principles which have been America's proudest boast.

Inspired neither by hate nor fear, but by the holy sentiments of truest patriotic fervor and zeal, we stand ready, we and all the flock committed to our keeping, to cooperate in every way possible with our President and our national government, to the end that the great and holy cause of liberty may triumph and that our beloved country may emerge from this hour of test stronger and nobler than ever.

Our people, as ever, will rise as one man to serve the nation. Our priests and consecrated women will once again, as in every former trial of our country, win by their bravery, their heroism and their service, new admiration and approval.

We are all true Americans, ready as our age, our ability and our condition permit, to do whatever is in us to do for the preservation, the progress and the triumph of our beloved country.

May God direct and guide our President and our government that out of this trying crisis in our national life may at length come a closer union among all the citizens of America and that an enduring and blessed peace may crown the sacrifices which war inevitably entails.

The vast problems of war relief and civic coöperation with the government appealed to Catholics as well as to all other patriotic citizens. As members of organizations not professedly of any religious character, thousands of Catholics volunteered their services to the government and were accepted. Their names and fields of activity are not included in this article. We have judged that its treatment should be confined to what may be called the corporate activity and coöperation of the Catholic body.

When the American troops were summoned for service on the Mexican border, the Knights of Columbus, a Catholic fraternal organization, inaugurated the work of building recreation halls which might also be used for religious services at the various camps. It was found that such civic coöperation promoted in an effective way the physical morale and the religious and spiritual welfare of the men.

As soon as the world war opened for America, the Fosdick Commission took up the question of providing in all the camps recreational centers for the enlisted men. To help in this work the Knights of Columbus offered the services of their entire order, and the organization was named as one of the governmental agencies for the work. Other Catholic societies were willing and anxious to undertake similar work, but from the viewpoint of economy and efficiency this would have been inadvisable. Therefore, in this great work which the Knights so generously undertook, the help, support and coöperation of the entire Catholic body were given to them. At every cantonment in the United States, at every national guard camp and at many of the naval stations, one, two or three halls have been erected by the Knights of Columbus. These have been equipped as recreational centers, manned with secretaries. Everybody, without distinction of creed or color, is made welcome. No distinction of any kind is made. The Knights of Columbus have offered their services, first, to that national cause common to us all as Americans and they have put their entire strength and force in promoting its welfare. They have not limited their activity to the troops at home. They have followed the troops abroad. Club-houses have been erected at the ports of debarkation, recreational centers at the cantonments of the American Expeditionary Forces, and huts behind the fighting lines. Trained secretaries have been sent abroad to conduct this work. The program includes there-

fore a complete coöperation with and seconding of the government in helping to promote the well-being and the morale of the troops both at home and abroad.

America has realized, as no nation ever realized, what civic co-operation, not from afar but at close range, can do for our soldiers. Previous to this time in history they were sent off to the war; now they are sent off—but we go with them. The break with home in its personal and corporate consequences is sad and demoralizing at best; to lessen it, to keep the home spirit with them is of the greatest value to them and the country they serve. We have learned that they are not only our soldiers, but they are our sons and our brothers. We have learned that the war is not theirs alone, but ours also. Consequently, we have followed them to the camp and into the camp, on board the transport, to foreign shores and into the trenches. The program of the government planned for this aid, and it asked the great civic social organizations of the country to coöperate with it by active support. The coöperation thus asked of the Catholic body of the country has been freely and generously given.

At the General Convention of the Catholics of the United States—held for the purpose of considering how we would best help the government win the war—the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Resolved: That this convention most heartily commends the excellent work which the Knights of Columbus have undertaken in coöperating with the government of the United States in meeting the moral problems which have arisen and will arise out of the war, and it is the opinion of this convention that the Knights of Columbus should be organized as the representative Catholic body for the special work they have undertaken.

This same convention, composed of delegates from almost all the dioceses of the United States, forty national Catholic organizations and the representatives of the Catholic Press Association passed unanimously also this further resolution:

Resolved: That it is the unanimous opinion of this convention that the Catholics of the United States should devote their united energies to promote the spiritual and material welfare of the United States troops during the war, wherever they may be, at home or abroad, and should create a national organization to study, coördinate, unify and put in operation all Catholic activities incidental to the war.

At the beginning of the war the number of commissioned chaplains permitted by law was absolutely insufficient for the needs of

the troops. Volunteer chaplains had to be called and their salaries provided by organizations of the faith to which they belonged. Many Catholic volunteer chaplains offered their services and their salaries were paid by the Knights of Columbus. The chaplains in service abroad were all too few as General Pershing's cablegram of last January shows. Such Catholic chaplains were sent abroad in goodly numbers and are being sent today, and the salaries of these men are paid by the Knights of Columbus.

It will be seen that with regard to war relief work with its manifold fields and with many agencies, eager to occupy all or any, the Catholic body faced the same problem as the government faced and as other religious denominations had to face. The government solved it by the appointment of the national Commission on Training Camp Activities of the army and navy, which has really coördinated the heads and representatives of social welfare organizations. The Protestant bodies solved it by creating the War Time Commission of the Federal Council of Churches which includes all the Protestant bodies, even the Universalists and the Unitarians. The Jewish body met it by establishing the Jewish Welfare Board. The Catholics have met it by creating the National Catholic War Council.

An organization is more accurately known by its spirit than by its constitution; therefore a word as to the genus or purpose of the National Catholic War Council. It was established not to control, but to direct; not to hinder or curtail, but to coördinate and to promote; not to rule with a master hand but to facilitate by conference and mutually accepted divisions of work. To be complete and efficient, it necessarily had to embrace the entire organization of the Catholic Church. The National Catholic War Council is composed first of the fourteen archbishops, or metropolitans, as they are called in the United States. The extent of territory covered by their sees will be evident from the following enumeration: James Cardinal Gibbons, archbishop of Baltimore; John Cardinal Farley, archbishop of New York; William Cardinal O'Connell, archbishop of Boston; Most Rev. John Ireland, archbishop of St. Paul; Most Rev. Alexander Christie, archbishop of Portland, Oregon; Most Rev. John J. Glennon, archbishop of St. Louis; Most Rev. Sebastian G. Messmer, archbishop of Milwaukee; Most Rev. Henry Moeller, archbishop of Cincinnati; Most Rev.

John B. Pitaval, archbishop of Sante Fe; Most Rev. Dennis J. Dougherty, archbishop of Philadelphia; Most Rev. James J. Keane, archbishop of Dubuque; Most Rev. Edward J. Hanna, archbishop of San Francisco; Most Rev. George W. Mundelein, archbishop of Chicago. With the direct heavy burdens of their own sees, and the great distances to be covered for a common meeting it would be impossible for this body to direct war work. They have, consequently, appointed with power to act an administrative committee of four bishops: Rt. Rev. Peter J. Muldoon of Rockford, Illinois; Rt. Rev. Joseph Schrembs of Toledo, Ohio; Rt. Rev. Patrick J. Hayes of New York and Rt. Rev. William T. Russell of Charleston, South Carolina. It is the office of this body to be a high court of general control and direction. All four of these bishops have the work of their immediate dioceses and necessarily their supervision of such a labor as war relief must be of a general character.

The immediate supervision and direction of war relief work has been left to two sub-committees: the Committee of the Knights of Columbus of which we have spoken and which has for its field all activities within the camps, camp secretaries and overseas work; and the Committee on Special War Activities which, to put it briefly and by way of exclusion, has for its field all that is not included in the work of the Knights of Columbus. The funds of the Knights of Columbus and the expenditures of them are under the control of that organization. And the same may be said of those of the Committee on Special War Activities. It will be seen then that both committees are left to do their independent work, and carry on their own administration. Both are held responsible by a higher authority, the Administrative Committee, and with this committee both meet at intervals for conferences and survey of the entire work through an advisory board, composed of the Administrative Committee, six representatives of the Knights of Columbus and six of the Committee on Special War Activities.

From this outline it will be seen that the entire Catholic Church of the country from the lowest to the highest of its members have put themselves at the service of the government and that within this organization the widest range has been allowed to every agency and every organization, and that the inspiring spirit of it all is to have every one and every society do their best, all working harmoniously under one authority for the welfare of the whole country.

With what thoroughness all fields are covered may be seen from the following survey of the constitution of the Committee on Special War Activities. The committee is composed of Rev. John J. Burke, chairman; Rt. Rev. Monsignor H. T. Drumgoole; Rt. Rev. Monsignor M. J. Splaine; Rt. Rev. Monsignor Edward A. Kelly; Rev. William J. Kerby; John G. Agar and Charles I. Denechaud.

It includes as sub-committees the Committee on Men's Organizations. It deals with all Catholic men's organizations, other than the Knights of Columbus, throughout the country. Before it was established many men's organizations had of course devoted themselves to war work. Now all overlapping, interference, duplication, inability to know just what to do are avoided. This central committee has informed itself first as to what each organization is doing; second, what it is best fitted to do;—and then directs it as to the most needed work in its community. In this way the Catholic clubs throughout the country have been thrown open for the entertainment and reception of soldiers and sailors: the men give of their personal service. They are instructed how to coöperate with the local Fosdick Commission; how to better, if they need to be bettered, the moral conditions of neighboring camps; to provide entertainment under Knights of Columbus auspices in the camps; to join with the Travelers' Aid; to recruit secretaries for camp work at home and abroad; and to coöperate in governmental activities, such as the liberty loan or Red Cross drives or war saving stamps campaigns.

The Red Cross, for example, in its letter of December, 1917, stated that "The Catholic Church has rendered invaluable service to the American Red Cross," and in a later letter, "The Christmas Red Cross membership drive received the enthusiastic support of the Catholic Church throughout the country." Under the Committee of Men's Organizations are registered 6,150 men's societies, all actively engaged in one or more forms of war work.

Another sub-committee is that on Women's Organizations. What was said of the work of the Committee on Men's Organizations may be repeated here. We may add that through this committee the work of building visitors' houses at the camps where they are needed is being carried on efficiently. It has already opened houses at Camp Merritt, New Jersey; Camp Mills, New York; Camp Upton, New York; and Camp Johnston, Florida, and the program

which is being developed and carried out is extensive. This committee has registered 4,200 women's organizations, and is directing their entire forces in the work of war relief whether it be the small local community work at home or the larger national work here or abroad.

A synopsis of the work of one of these societies will serve as evidence of the magnitude of the entire work through the country. The Catholic Women's Service League of Albany was organized June 3, 1917. During the first ten months of its existence it organized twenty-four subordinate units and established headquarters at the expense of \$130,000. This headquarters accommodates classes in First Aid, Home Care for Sick, and Surgical Dressings. The league sent to the Red Cross during that period over 5,000 articles. In the second liberty loan it subscribed \$3,000.00; in thrift savings stamps campaign it has collected \$10,000.00. Together with the Patriotic League it has cared for dependent sailors and soldiers. Its aid is extended to people of all denominations, and its activities reach into many more channels than those we have mentioned. The Committee on Women's Organizations undertakes also the work of relief and care of Belgian and French children; and such special work as coöperating with the Association of American Colleges in the education in this country of French girls.

Another sub-committee is that of Historical Records. This committee purposes to preserve a record of the names of all Catholics in the service of the United States and of all Catholic activity with regard to the war and its subsequent problems. Its field is immense. It will also publish shortly a special bulletin of general interest and war information. It keeps in close touch with governmental agencies of history and record. The Sub-committee on Publicity is a bureau of information, useful and necessary not only for the Catholic body, but for all others—individual or organized bodies, since the work of one is of interest and closely allied with the work of all.

From the very beginning of the war the Catholic Church found it imperative to supply their many chaplains with all that was necessary to conduct divine service. This meant, in the first place, an altar, altar equipment, vestments, chalice, etc. All these go to make up what is called a chaplain's "kit." Moreover, for the welfare of the troops, it was necessary to supply prayer books, religious

articles, the New Testaments,—literature that would be helpful and inspiring. To cover this special field the Chaplains' Aid Association was organized, as early as April, 1917. This association with its many chapters throughout the country is under the Sub-committee on Chaplains' Aid and Literature, of the Committee on Special War Activities. We need not review its work here. Sufficient to say it has distributed 400,000 prayer books, printed and is distributing 570,000 copies of the New Testament and in general provides for these special needs of our Catholic—and frequently non-Catholic—soldiers and sailors, both at home and abroad.

Under the Special Activities Committee is the Committee on Finance. Its title defines its office. There is also the Committee on Reconstruction which has already taken up the various problems that even now face us and that will increase when the war ends.

It may be added that all these committees are acting constantly in concert with Protestant and Jewish bodies. The chairman of the Committee on Special War Activities is also the chairman of the Committee of Six, an advisory commission to the Commission on Training Camp Activities and to the War Department. The membership of this committee is as follows: Rt. Rev. James DeWolf Perry, chairman of the Executive Committee of the War Commission of the Episcopal Church; Mr. Robert E. Speer, chairman of War Time Commission of the Federal Council of Churches; Dr. William Adams Brown, secretary of the War Time Commission of the Federal Council of Churches; Mr. John R. Mott, international secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association; Colonel Harry Cutler, chairman of the Jewish Welfare Board in the United States Army and Navy, and Rev. John J. Burke, C.S.P., chairman of Committee on Special War Activities of the National Catholic War Council.

The National Catholic War Council is constantly securing and directing the coöperation of the entire Catholic body with all governmental activity. Its national headquarters are at 932 14th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. Its work, we trust, is evidence of how the Catholic Church in America works as one, individually and corporately, for the support of the government, the welfare of our troops and the victorious triumph of our arms.

AMERICAN JEWISH RELIEF IN THE WORLD WAR

BY ALBERT LUCAS,

Secretary of the Joint Distribution Committee of the American Funds for Jewish War Sufferers.

Our latest figures show the collections by American Jewry, acting as an entity, in behalf of the Jews in the various War Zones of Europe and Palestine, have totalled, since the beginning of the war in 1914 and up to the present year, approximately \$20,000,000, of which the bulk has been disbursed. There has been but a single distributing agency for the disbursing of this huge sum, namely, the Joint Distribution Committee of the American Funds for Jewish War Sufferers, comprising in its membership representatives of the various committees, whose duty it has been to collect the funds. Upon this Joint Distribution Committee, of which the Chairman is Felix M. Warburg, many well known leaders of Jewry in America have served.

AMERICAN JEWRY UNITED IN EFFORT

Every section and every shade of Jewish life in America is represented. The men and women who have thus given of their time, of their energy and of their effort, to insure an equitable and wise distribution of the funds secured through the generosity of virtually all the Jews in America, rich and poor alike, are leaders in finance and in the religious and cultural life of American Jewry. Their service has insured, not alone the honest administration of the vast sums placed at their disposal, but likewise its able administration.

To better insure an exact knowledge of the requirements presented by the situation in Europe in its ever changing aspects, there was established by Dr. Boris D. Bogen and Max Senior in the latter part of last year (1917), a branch of the Joint Distribution Committee in Holland. This branch is to be a permanency until the close of the war and will, presumably, be continued long after, for the necessary purposes of rehabilitation. There are also established in various parts of Europe and in Palestine, local Committees, which report to the Joint Distribution Committee, so that it is possible to keep in close, frequent and immediate

touch with the various Jewish Committees in the War Zones, including even those Committees in the "Occupied" districts.

BEGAN RELIEF IN FALL OF 1914

American Jews, more quickly than any other body of American citizens, came to the realization in the Fall of 1914, that extensive relief measures would be necessary as a corollary of the war. The American Jewish Committee, which had in its treasury a balance of approximately \$600,000 out of the funds collected for the relief of the victims of the Kishineff massacre, made this sum available for war relief purposes. Other representative Jewish organizations took up the matter of appeals,—among these, and probably the first, being the Union of Orthodox Jewish Congregations of America, the call being sent out at the instance of Albert Lucas and Morris Engelman, Secretaries of the Union.

The relief work took its first organized form on October 4, 1914, when, as a result of the activity of the Union of Orthodox Congregations, the Orthodox Jews of America formed the Central Committee for the Relief of Jews Suffering Through the War, with Leon Kamaiky, publisher of the *Jewish Daily News* of New York, as the Chairman; Harry Fischel, Treasurer; Albert Lucas, Executive Secretary; and Morris Engelman, Financial Secretary.

AMERICAN JEWISH COMMITTEE ACTS

Almost immediately thereafter, the American Jewish Committee sent out a country-wide invitation to national Jewish organizations, including the recently organized Central Relief Committee, to appoint delegates to meet in a conference in New York City on October 25. Louis Marshall presided at this meeting, and a Committee of five members was appointed, consisting of Oscar S. Straus, Julian W. Mack, Louis D. Brandeis, Harry Fischel and Meyer London. The Committee of Five was to select a Committee of 100, to be representative of every organization invited to the Conference. Thus was formed the American Jewish Relief Committee, the first officers of which were Louis Marshall, President; Cyrus L. Sulzberger, Secretary; and Felix M. Warburg, Treasurer. In the meanwhile, the Central Committee had already been collecting funds and had sent \$10,000 abroad to Europe and to Palestine.

At a meeting of the American Jewish Relief Committee on

November 22, 1914, it was announced that the American Jewish Committee had voted to transfer the sum of \$100,000 from its emergency trust fund to the Relief Committee, and many large sums were pledged by individuals for the general purposes of relief.

ORGANIZATION OF JOINT DISTRIBUTION COMMITTEE

The most important step in the work of Jewish war relief was taken on November 24, 1914, when the Joint Distribution Committee was formed jointly by the American Jewish Relief Committee and the Central Relief Committee, and the People's Relief Committee, which was organized later, also sends its representatives to the meetings of the Joint Distribution Committee.

The year following the beginning of the war, in August, 1915, the People's Relief Committee was formed, the first Chairman of which was Meyer London. This Committee appeals to that section of the Jews of America who are representatives of the laboring classes, and whose contributions are mostly obtained in small sums.

In this way was avoided any possibility of duplication in the transmission of funds abroad, without interfering in any way with the collection of funds by the three constituent committees, which have continued to appeal to those sections of the Jewish community which could best be reached by them respectively. Thus the American Jewish Relief Committee has collected very large sums, mainly among the wealthier Jews of the nation, while the Central Committee has appealed to the Orthodox element and the People's Committee has appealed to the laboring element.

HOW FUNDS ARE ALLOTTED

The Joint Distribution Committee has impartially considered all the reports received from all over the world, with details of the distress and suffering caused by the war. They have come not only from Europe but also from Palestine, as well as from parts of Asia and from Africa. The Committee has taken the funds poured into its treasury by the three Committees and has distributed them wherever, in its judgment, it has felt the most good could be done. The Committee meets frequently in New York.

The three constituent committees,—the American, the Central and People's Committees,—have each been organized on a national scale. Each has branches throughout the United States

wherever there are any Jewish communities, and even Jews living in rural districts and single families in the smallest villages are reached.

As a result of this very complete organization, there is virtually not a Jewish man, woman or child in the United States to whom direct appeals have not frequently been made.

PER CAPITA CONTRIBUTION ABOVE SIX DOLLARS

It is estimated that in the United States there are approximately 3,000,000 Jewish souls who have contributed to the total sum collected since the beginning of the war, a per capita sum amounting to more than \$6.00 each. There have, of course, been some significantly large contributions, notably \$1,000,000 by Julius Rosenwald of Chicago, and almost equal amounts contributed at different times by such men as Jacob H. Schiff, Nathan Straus, Felix M. Warburg and other leaders in Jewish financial or commercial life. But there have been hundreds of thousands of individual contributions from Jews in moderate circumstances and from those who have had little if anything to spare above their own needs, which have swelled the total to an amount never before contributed to any single cause in the history of American Jewry.

These large sums have been collected not without effort, not without continuous appeals, directed through both the written and the spoken word. Leading Jewish orators have gone to every part of the country to tell the story of the sufferings and privations of the Jews in the War Zones. It has been conceded generally, by others engaged in war relief activities, that the funds collected and disbursed by American Jewry have been administered at a cost far below that of any other fund approximating the Jewish fund in size.

REALIZATION OF NEED GROWS

Up to the end of 1915, the sum of \$1,500,000 had been raised through various sources, by the three committees engaged in collecting. It was clearly apparent at this time, that the sum thus far raised was totally inadequate to the needs presented by the constantly increasing devastation of war. It was shown by representative Jews who had been sent abroad, personally to investigate and to report their findings, that European Jewry was threatened with obliteration, was in fact being obliterated through hunger

and want. It was made manifest that only very much greater sums of money than had hitherto been conjectured as necessary, were required to prevent this calamity, and to avert the catastrophe which daily grew more imminent.

It was then determined that the goal of American Jewry in the year 1916 should be not less than \$6,000,000 for relief purposes. At the first of a series of great mass meetings held throughout the country, there was raised in New York City in a single night more than \$400,000 in cash and additional pledges which brought the total for the evening to nearly \$1,000,000.

WILSON NAMES JEWISH RELIEF DAY

President Wilson himself recognized the plight of European Jewry and lent his every encouragement to the effort to raise funds, designating January 27, 1917, as a special day for contributions to Jewish war relief funds. President Wilson took this action following the passage in the United States Senate of a resolution introduced by Senator Martine of New Jersey.

Funds have been raised by the various committees according to the methods best adapted to their respective constituents. Thus the Central Committee has made a specialty of appeals on Jewish religious holidays; the People's Committee has collected funds in weekly installments, usually amounting to but a few cents each, while the American Committee has appealed directly to the larger givers.

The most spectacular of the campaigns was that undertaken in New York City in the close of 1917, when approximately \$5,000,-000 was raised in an intensive campaign led by Jacob H. Schiff and directed by Jacob Billikopf. A part of this sum was set aside for the Jewish Welfare Board—U.S. Army and Navy—of which Colonel Harry Cutler is the Chairman, and which has for its special function, to minister to the needs of the Jewish men in the military service of the United States, which already number over 60,000.

\$10,000,000 GOAL IN 1917

This campaign was the climax of the campaign to raise \$10,-000,000, which was the goal set by American Jewry for the year 1917. The statistics show that approximately one-half of the Jewish population of the United States is centered in New York

City, so that by raising \$5,000,000 in the city and \$5,000,000 in the country at large during 1917, a fair division of the contributions was reached.

Since the entrance of the United States into the war, the efforts for the collection of large sums have in no sense diminished, although there has, of course, been a restriction upon their disbursement. The Joint Distribution Committee of the American Funds for Jewish War Sufferers has acted in close coöperation with the American State Department, whose entire confidence it has at all times enjoyed. The moneys now sent abroad are sent by permission of the War Trade Board, and are sent through the State Department in such amounts and to such points of distribution as are approved by these two Governmental agencies.

MAINTAIN WASHINGTON OFFICE

The Joint Distribution Committee is represented in Washington by Fulton Brylawski, who is at all times in close communication with the various departments of the Government.

The manner in which American Jewry has rallied to the support of the Jews stricken by the war has evidenced a unity of purpose and a single-minded idealism which has brought together every section of Jewry in America in the common effort to assuage misery and suffering.

The fact that American Jewry alone is in a position to extend the requisite assistance and that this fact is thoroughly appreciated by the bulk of American Jews undoubtedly has had much to do with the generosity, magnitude and extent of the response to the appeals that have been made.

In addition to its general work of relief, there has been maintained by the Joint Distribution Committee a Transmission Bureau, through which relatives of those in the war zones may directly transmit moneys to their wives, parents, brothers, sisters and other relatives. In the early days of the war, vast quantities of food, clothing, medical supplies and other aid were sent direct to the Jews in various parts of Palestine and Poland, and even after the United States entered the war, the Joint Distribution Committee was successful in bringing to America hundreds of refugees of American citizenship, from Palestine, who were cared for by agents of the Committee in the long journey from Jerusalem.

TRANSMISSION WORK OF THE JOINT DISTRIBUTION COMMITTEE

<i>Sent to</i>	<i>No. of Rem.</i>	<i>Amount</i>
Russia.....	9363	\$189,828.43
Austria.....	870	15,564.41
Occupied Territory.....	12274	288,691.01
Palestine and "Various".....	2151	113,724.47
<hr/>		
Total.....	24658	\$607,808.32

REPORTS SHOW WIDESPREAD DISTRIBUTION

Exhaustive reports showing the disbursement of funds in hundreds of villages, cities and towns in all sections of the war zones have been received by the committee, from time to time, and the variety and extent of the work of alleviating the sufferings of the men, women and children, are remarkable. Soup kitchens have been established, orphanages reared, hospitals equipped and even the rabbis and scholars have been cared for in special ways through the munificence of the help afforded by America.

In the main, however, the money raised by American Jewry has gone chiefly for bread, for hunger has been the chief thing to be overcome. Starvation has everywhere been rampant and it has been the first act of the Joint Distribution Committee to remedy this condition.

Former United States Consul to Jerusalem, Otis A. Glazebrook, indicates in a report dated as early as July 21, 1916, how dire was the need and how great has been the relief afforded by American Jewry. In this report Dr. Glazebrook states:

Jerusalem has always been, even in normal times, rich in its poor population, living upon the charity of our brethren abroad. How much is this the case now, when all sources of income, which used to flow from all ends of the world to the Holy City, to each of her communities, of her institutions, and her "kolels," are stopped and replaced by the only possible remittances, which are the remittances from the Joint Distribution Committee. No wonder then that the disinherited ones have been looking to the American Relief as their only bright star.

The totals of the relief funds sent to the various countries since the outbreak of the war in 1914 are:—

Russia.....	\$2,812,300.00
Poland.....	5,376,662.98
Austria Hungary.....	1,583,700.00
Palestine.....	1,571,485.86
Turkey.....	616,004.30
Alexandria, Palestinian Refugees.....	56,394.84
Greece.....	91,021.88
Servia.....	22,500.00
Servian Jews in Switzerland.....	2,000.00
Roumania.....	135,900.00
Bulgaria.....	18,500.00
Tunis, Algiers and Morocco.....	9,000.00
Students and writers in Denmark and Switzerland.....	11,200.00
Destitute Families of Russian Jews in France.....	5,000.00
Spain-Turkish Refugees.....	8,000.00
Japan-Russian Refugees in Yokohama.....	80,000.00
Persia.....	26,700.00
Kosher Food for Jewish Prisoners of War in Internment Camps.....	15,500.00
Advanced a/c Refugees from Palestine.....	12,298.12

THE WAR RELIEF WORK OF THE COUNCIL OF NATIONAL DEFENSE

INTRODUCTORY

BY THE EDITOR

The Council of National Defense was created by Act of Congress on August 29, 1916, to create "relations which render possible in time of need, the immediate concentration and the utilization of the resources of the nation."

Since the declaration of war on April 6, 1917, the Council of National Defense has concentrated its efforts on the mobilization of industries, resources and people of the United States for the effective conduct of the war. It has, accordingly, concerned itself with war relief only incidentally to this primary task, and the following articles on war relief work are, therefore, descriptive of but one or two of the many important branches of the work of the Council of National Defense. In order to understand this relief work of the Council of National Defense, it is necessary first to consider briefly the far-reaching organization established by the Council of National Defense in the several states and smaller localities.

The Council of National Defense consists of the Secretaries of War, Navy, Agriculture, Interior, Commerce, and Labor, assisted by an Advisory Commission of seven experts. The executive work of the council is performed through its committees and those of its Advisory Commission together with certain supplemental sections and divisions.

Immediately after the declaration of war by the United States, the Council of National Defense extended its organization into the states in two ways: first, by appealing to the governors of each state to create state councils of defense similar in function to the Council of National Defense; and, second, by appointing a Woman's Committee to direct and organize the war work of women. In response to the first appeal, state councils of defense or bodies have been created by the proclamation of the governor or by Act of Legislature in every state in the Union. Where committees on public safety already existed, these were designated by the governor

to act as state councils of defense. At the same time, the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense extended its organization into the states, by the creation of state divisions. As the development of the state councils of defense and state divisions of the Woman's Committee has been slightly different, these two organizations will be considered separately.

The state councils of defense are the official war emergency organizations of the states, entrusted in general with the execution of all the work of the state relating to the war, outside of the regular functions of the state executive departments. The state councils of defense are also the official state organizations for centralizing and correlating all war activities within the state, and for coördinating the work and supervising solicitation of funds of voluntary societies engaged in war relief work. These forty-eight state councils of defense, in addition to their state functions, are also the official representatives of the Council of National Defense in each state carrying on in its behalf, and in the behalf of the federal departments and war administrations, certain important war activities entrusted to them by the Council of National Defense or by some federal department or administration. They have also become central state bureaus of war work, whose extensive and effective organization is largely used by the state agencies of those federal administrations which have deemed it necessary to create direct state agencies, responsible for the exercise of their power and the conduct of their work in the several states. In spite of this national position, however, these state councils of defense are essentially state bodies, tracing their principal authority to state law.

Experience rapidly proved that the great tasks before the state councils of defense, whether of state or national origin, were tasks the ultimate accomplishment of which could not be brought about by the action of their organization itself, but only through enlisting and directing the efforts of the people at large. To meet this need, the state councils of defense have uniformly created county or similar local councils of defense to represent the state and national councils of defense in the localities. At the request of the Council of National Defense, the state councils are now engaging, and in many states have completed, the creation of community councils of defense in the school district or a similar local unit of such small size that all the citizens in that locality can be reached through

personal contact. These community councils of defense are not mere committees, but organizations including within their membership and activities all the individuals of the community, and all the war agencies conducting work in the community. They are, in effect, the community itself organized for war work.

To head up this far-reaching organization of state, county and community councils of defense, the Council of National Defense created a special section, called the "State Councils Section." This section transmits to the state councils of defense, to be rebulletinized to their local councils, the requests for assistance of the Council of National Defense and of the various federal departments and war administrations. It also assists in the development and extension of the organization and work of the several state councils of defense, and acts as a representative of these state councils in Washington.

The growth of the state divisions created by the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense, has been largely similar. The state division is the official war emergency organization of women operating in the state, which is recognized by the federal government. The organization has been extended to counties, cities and towns, and in many states to wards, precincts and even city blocks,—and this machinery has been used to bring the war measures of the Government to the attention of the women of the country, and to secure their coöperation as far as possible.

In order to enlist the most intelligent and effective service on the part of women, the Woman's Committee has created certain well-defined departments of work, and secured in the states the coöperation of government agents and other experts in these particular lines. At the same time it has established in Washington a connection with the executive departments and federal agencies concerned with war activities as they relate to women, so that by these means the Woman's Committee conveys to the women of the country authoritative information and instructions, and at the same time directs them toward the most efficient means of putting both information and instruction into effect.

In the terminal organization, in the small communities, the state divisions of the Woman's Committee and the state councils of defense are united in creating the community council of defense above described as the common local organization of both. The

position and functions of the local organizations of the Woman's Committee are similar, in their application to women, to those of the state councils of defense. In most states, the state divisions of the Woman's Committee and the state councils of defense are effectively drawn together, through the fact that the state and county units of the Woman's Committee operate as the Woman's Committee of the respective state and county councils of defense. Thus the Council of National Defense, through its state and local councils of defense and state and local units of its Woman's Committee, has established an organization reaching with the message of the war the individual citizens of this nation and enlisting and directing their efforts in effective and necessary war work.

The following articles, concerning the work of these bodies and their local agencies in its relation to war relief, are written by persons closely in touch with the work of the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense and of the State Councils Section. These articles, descriptive of a part of the work accomplished by these agencies in the states, are not, however, in any way, official statements of the Council of National Defense.

DEPARTMENT OF HOME AND FOREIGN RELIEF OF THE WOMAN'S COMMITTEE

BY ELISABETH CAREY,
Information Department, Woman's Committee.

The Woman's Committee was organized at a time when the attention of the country was turning with renewed intensity to the alleviation of the sufferings caused by the war. Women everywhere were flocking in steadily increasing numbers to the surgical dressings room. Every day saw new efforts to supply the wants of war refugees. Knitting was fast becoming the occupation of every spare moment. It was obvious, then, that any organization which had for its avowed purpose the encouragement and coördination of women's endeavor, must include in its program some provision for relief work. Accordingly, the Department of Home and Foreign Relief was created.

In realizing the powerful appeal of such work and the oppor-

tunities which it offers for the tangible expression of a will to serve, the Woman's Committee by no means overlooked the fact that the American Red Cross, because of its authoritative position, its recognized efficiency and its transportation facilities, had become a center for all relief activities, and that most women had already affiliated themselves with that organization. It was decided, therefore, that the function of the Department of Home and Foreign Relief should be coöperative rather than initiative; and steps were immediately taken to put the Woman's Committee on terms of mutual helpfulness with the Red Cross.

The service rendered has consisted for the most part in putting the state and local machinery of the Woman's Committee at the command of the Red Cross and other relief societies. Since the machinery involves an organization which extends in some cases not only to counties and townships but to school districts, city wards and even blocks, embracing altogether an aggregate of approximately 14,000 units with a leader in each, it has been of no mean assistance in recruiting members, raising money, and giving publicity to such projects as the adoption of French orphans and the rehabilitation of French villages. In intensive drives for funds or members these workers of the Woman's Committee have been especially useful. The Red Cross found in Topeka, Kansas, a chairman in each ward and a captain with from five to twenty lieutenants in each precinct ready to canvass the entire town in a single day. In Tampa, Florida, during the Christmas campaign for members, the Woman's Committee added 7,000 names to the Red Cross roster. These instances have been paralleled in many localities. Nor has the Red Cross been the only agency to seize this opportunity of securing an organized band of aides eager for service. During the drive conducted by the Young Women's Christian Association to finance their War Work Council the representatives of the Woman's Committee in the state of Washington collected the assigned quota of \$100,000.

The members of local committees have often been able to bring into touch with relief societies women who otherwise might never have been reached. In one state where roads are rough and railways are few, the coming of the Woman's Committee has in several counties meant the beginning of Red Cross work. In Michigan, local units of the Woman's Committee undertook to secure a

supplementary force of knitters among those whose services, by some untoward circumstance, the Red Cross had not yet been able to enlist. The result was an overwhelming response from school children, firemen, aged grandmothers, women in institutions,—all eager to do something for their country but up to this time lacking the opportunity. In another state the translation of knitting instructions into Danish brought to the Red Cross a number of very efficient workers. To the Home Service Section of the American Red Cross, the Department of Home and Foreign Relief has, through its local workers, been able to render some assistance by spreading information as to allotments and War Risk Insurance or by calling attention to soldiers' families in need of advice or aid.

Although the general policy of the Department of Home and Foreign Relief has been to further the activities of existing agencies for relief rather than to carry on independent work through the units of the Woman's Committee, in some emergencies it has been possible for this Department to supplement the work done by other organizations. For instance, last fall when an early snow storm came upon a cantonment in the Ohio valley, the women of the vicinity immediately collected a fund and through a mail order house supplied the soldiers with much needed woolen clothing. In the same way, other units of the Woman's Committee have been able to raise funds and supply unmistakable local needs without fear of encroaching upon the work of other organizations or of lessening in any way their ability in the larger service of coöperation.

LEGAL ADVICE FOR SELECTIVES

BY LUTHER H. GULICK, 3D,
Washington, D. C.

The work which state councils of defense have undertaken, to prepare selectives for service ranks, is one of the important constructive relief efforts of the war. The constructive element is especially prominent because this preparatory work makes relief, as usually understood, unnecessary at a later date for a large number of men and their dependents.

STATE COUNCILS AND LEGAL COMMITTEES

In order to prevent men from entering military service either through enlistment or through the draft before they have prepared their business affairs for absence, the Council of National Defense issued on February 4, 1918, a bulletin¹ to state councils of defense, calling on them to appoint:

1. A State Legal Committee to perform the following duties:
 - (a) to draft and propose war emergency legislation for State Legislatures.
 - (b) to draw up a booklet of laws and legal rules of importance to soldiers and sailors entering the service, to be used by Local Legal Committees, as a handbook for their work, and as an instrument for making known to soldiers and sailors the need of legal preparation for their absence.
 - (c) to supervise the formation and work of the Local Legal Committees mentioned below.
2. A Local Legal Committee in each county to furnish free legal advice and assistance to soldiers and sailors with the following specific duties:
 - (a) to give legal advice as to the benefits of war risk insurance, allotments of soldiers' and sailors' pay by the Federal Government, family allowance, compensation, the Soldiers' and Sailors' Civil Relief Act, and other war emergency laws relating to men entering the service.
 - (b) to draft wills and attend to caring for the property of business men entering the service.
 - (c) to represent soldiers and sailors in court where necessary and obtain for them the benefits of the Civil Relief Act.
 - (d) to attend to such business matters as require and are capable of attention in the absence of men in the service.
 - (e) to report to the Red Cross Home Service Section cases requiring relief which come to the attention of the Committee.

¹ Bulletin No. 84.

It was recommended that these local legal committees should be composed primarily of lawyers, but should include in their membership a business man and a representative of the Red Cross Home Service Section. The further recommendation was made that any existing organized effort in the community for furnishing free legal advice to men entering the service, should be utilized in forming the local legal committee. It was specifically suggested that the personnel of the permanent Legal Advisory Board, created by the Provost Marshal General to assist registrants in filling out their questionnaires, should be the nucleus of the local legal committee of the councils of defense. This suggestion was made in order to correlate the work of these two organizations, and because the legal advisory boards are "composed of men already tried who have proved their zeal and fitness for such work."

At the time of the issuance of this bulletin, and since that time, the Council of National Defense has emphasized repeatedly that the most important function of the local legal committee is to make strenuous efforts to see each man entering the service personally, and to urge upon him the necessity of preparing his business and financial affairs for his absence. In a majority of states such legal committees have now been organized. These committees are working hand in hand with the home service sections of the American Red Cross and with the permanent legal advisory boards. Wherever consistent with local arrangements, the state council legal Committees are assisting the home service sections in handling legal matters. Similarly cases requiring the attention of the American Red Cross are referred by local legal committees to the nearest home service section.

STATE COUNCIL LEGAL HANDBOOK

The Council of National Defense recommended that each state council through its legal committee prepare and issue a legal booklet to assist local legal committees in furnishing legal advice and aid to men entering service. There are two valuable features of such a booklet. In the first place, it presents in brief compass the various matters a lawyer should cover in preparing a man's affairs for his departure. Most lawyers need such a document to assure them that they are raising with the men every question that should be settled, and that they are ferreting out and anticipating problems

which may arise in the future. In the second place, the legal booklet becomes the means of urging upon lawyers who have volunteered for this service, the importance of their taking the initiative in approaching men to advise them with regard to their legal affairs. These young men of small business experience, especially at this time of excitement, are not aware of the need and possibilities of legal preparation, and cannot be relied upon to come to the lawyers and present their own problems.

A suggested table of contents for such a legal booklet was later issued by the council. This presented not only an outline of the federal laws which should be included in the booklet, but also an outline of the fields of state law which should be covered.

As a result of this appeal of the National Council, a majority of the state councils have already issued, or are in the process of issuing, legal handbooks. In order to make available to states which have not yet issued their handbooks the benefits of the experience of other states, the Council of National Defense has sent copies of successful booklets to the various states.

It became evident early in April that lawyers in various sections of the country were taking advantage of men entering the service and of their dependents. In order to counteract this exploitation the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of the Navy, the American Bar Association and the Council of National Defense each issued warnings calling the attention of the public to the existing channels for securing free legal advice and assistance.

POPULARIZING NATIONAL RELIEF

In order to bring more effectively before the selectives the need of preparation before entering service, the Council of National Defense issued, on April 8, a bulletin² recommending the holding of meetings for drafted men under the auspices of the state and county councils. These meetings were intended as a means of giving the pre-draft men instruction in personal hygiene, information concerning camp life and their opportunities in the service, information concerning the service with which the American Red Cross stands ready to furnish them and their dependents, and especially to emphasize the need of legal assistance in preparing their affairs for departure.

² Bulletin No. 89.

On July 4, Provost Marshal General E. H. Crowder issued a recommendation to local draft boards, calling on them to create boards of Instruction.³ It is the duty of these boards of instruction to take personal, active, and direct measures to meet each Class I registrant, and to see that he understands why we are at war, what we are fighting for, and how he can best prepare himself for service. Because of the position of state and county councils of defense, and because of the work which many of them had already done with selectives, General Crowder recommended that the local draft boards work wherever possible with state and county councils of defense, in securing the personnel for the boards of instruction. Because of this recommendation, the Council of National Defense issued a bulletin⁴ explaining to state and county councils of defense the functions and duties of boards of instruction, and calling on them to assist the local draft boards in securing the best possible personnel for boards of instruction.

The main function of the local board of instruction is to build up the morale of selectives. This involves the education of selectives concerning the government provisions of the War Risk Insurance Act and the Soldiers' and Sailors' Civil Relief Act to free them from worries or misunderstandings. This phase of the work, though not the most important for which boards of instruction are responsible, calls on them to take a part in the national propaganda to popularize the great national relief laws.

³ Letter of July 4, 1918.

⁴ Bulletin No. 102.

HEALTH ACTIVITIES OF STATE COUNCILS OF DEFENSE

BY ARTHUR W. MACMAHON,
Washington, D. C.

The maintenance of civilian health in war time, when people are subjected to unusual strains and when the ranks of practitioners and nurses and the staffs of hospitals and departments of health are depleted by the needs of the military establishment, is a problem of national defense which increases daily in importance. The connection of this problem with war relief work is real but in general indirect. For that reason anything more than an indication of the nature of the activities of state councils in the field of health would be out of place in this volume.

In the first place, a practical distinction must be drawn between the work of mobilizing medical resources for direct war service and health work, involving contact with the general public. Not only is the former work further removed from war relief in the strict sense, but it has on the whole been accomplished through machinery other than the state councils of defense. Despite its importance, it is, therefore, treated only incidentally in this article. The primary agents concerned in medical mobilization have been the Medical Section of the Council of National Defense, created on December 12, 1916, as its first subordinate body, and the General Medical Board, constituted on February 1, 1917, around the medical member of the Advisory Commission. The first of these bodies acts as the executive arm of the latter, which is deliberative; together they may be regarded as the Medical Committee of the Council of National Defense.

Even before our entrance into the war, the Medical Section was authorized to create a system of state and county committees, which it did by appointment from among strictly professional circles, for the most part taking over the personnel of the subsidiaries of the pre-existing Committee of American Physicians for Medical Preparedness. These state and county committees have been subject to the instructions of the Medical Section, and have been in constant direct correspondence with it; they have thus constituted an avenue by which the National Government has communicated its policies and requirements with regard to war-time medical

problems of essentially national character, to the members of the medical profession. Many of the phases of medical mobilization, such as the standardization of surgical supplies to offset the cessation of German importations, have been capable of direct adjustment from Washington without the intermediation of these local committees. Other matters, such as the recruitment of doctors for the Medical Reserve Corps (which has probably been the most important phase of medical mobilization) or the constitution of medical advisory boards in connection with the Selective Service Law, have involved action by the state and county committees.

The connection of the state councils of defense with the work of mobilizing medical resources for direct war service, has thus depended primarily upon the relation existing in each state between the committee of the Medical Section and the state council of defense. About three-fourths of the state councils have constituted committees having specifically to do with health matters. The personnel of a number of these committees is identical with that of the committees of the Medical Section in these states. In nearly all of the other states, the two committees have certain officers or at least members in common. In the cases where especially favorable relations have been worked out, the state council has given financial and other support to the state committee of the Medical Section, without breaking its direct communication and responsibility in medical matters essentially national in character, and has thus aided in the work of medical mobilization for war service. As the months pass, the meaning of medical mobilization becomes broader. At first, while the tremendous initial needs of our new army and navy were being filled and lines laid to meet the continuing requirements, the imperative objectives of medical mobilization were of course military; it was work by doctors with doctors to meet military necessities, and the result has been as splendid an out-pouring of personal sacrifice as the world has yet seen made by any professional group. From now on, increasing attention can be given to a problem which has, of course, been recognized from the first—the adjustment of the remaining medical resources to the needs of the civilian population. This is not the place to state how the problem will be worked out. Undoubtedly the Volunteer Medical Service Corps (the official organization of doctors not in military service, who pledge themselves for war service at home) will be an important

instrument in securing this adjustment. The delicate task of building up the personnel of the Volunteer Medical Service Corps, is being conducted primarily through the machinery of the Medical Section. The work of the corps will undoubtedly bring it in contact with war relief organizations. The state and local councils of defense, as coördinating bodies, with facilities for reaching the general public, will be necessarily drawn into this work.

In turning to the health activities of state councils, as distinguished from the more strictly medical lines of work, the relation of the councils to existing health agencies within the states should first be indicated. In this, as in other matters, the state councils work with and largely through existing organizations. Naturally, relations with state boards of health are particularly close, and in one-half of the cases in which the council has a committee specifically charged with health matters, the state health officer is on the committee, usually as chairman. The Council of National Defense, at the instance of the U. S. Public Health Service, has used the councils of defense to further centralize reporting of morbidity data,—in one case, reporting at regular intervals from cities of a population of over 10,000 to the Public Health Service, in the other emergency notification of camp medical authorities by local officers. In this work, as in all its suggestions on health matters, the National Council has sought to avoid cutting across and breaking the hierarchy of health officials which has been growing up so wholesomely in the United States.

The State Councils also work with important semi-private health organizations, where these are already in the field. Thus the Oregon State Council, having \$10,000 of its 1917 funds given it expressly to be spent in improving moral conditions around camps, added a representative of the Oregon Social Hygiene Association to its membership, and helped to maintain other representatives of the association in the field. The Illinois Council, in taking up the tuberculosis problem recently, with reference especially to men rejected in the draft or discharged from service because of tuberculosis, has worked with a pre-existing body known as the "Coöperating Committee on Tuberculosis War Problem," and has had the local representatives of that body made chairman of county council committees on the subject. Or, to cite another example, the Texas State Council has, in its material on general health, always included

the slogan, "Join the Texas Public Health Association," or when dealing with venereal diseases, "Join the Texas Social Hygiene Association."

In what ways can councils of defense help the normal health agencies? Generalizing, we may say: since they exist to meet war emergencies, the councils can put the war appeal back of health work; since they parallel governmental organization within the state, and at the same time have a non-routine, non-political point of view, they are in a strategic position to influence local governments to take such steps as war conditions require; since they usually have emergency funds not minutely tied up by legislation, they can finance measures which regular departments cannot meet; since one of their primary functions is to be a mediating, coördinating influence, they can bring health agencies together; finally, they have unusual channels for reaching the general public.

Regarding the health activities themselves, although interesting work has already been done, such activities lie rather in the future than in the past. During the first phase of our participation in the war, when, for all that European experience was before us, we did not fully realize how far-reaching are the reactions of war on civilian life, state councils, in so far as they initiated health activities at all, naturally tended to confine these to special groups or special diseases having an obvious and immediate military connection. During 1917, for example, the Connecticut State Council arranged for the free medical treatment of men barred from enlistment, because of slight physical defects or rejected in the draft for similar reasons. It also coöperated with an organization of dentists in giving free dental treatment to recruits. The South Carolina State Council worked out with the Anti-tuberculosis Association, the State Board of Health, and other interested agencies, a plan by which all men rejected by draft boards because of tuberculosis, were followed up and treated. Other state councils have carried out or at least considered plans for the treatment of those wishing to enlist, and for the reclamation of physical rejects. Such work would have gone much further if there had been national encouragement. In view of the heavy demands which were being made concurrently upon the medical profession and upon hospitals, however, it has been impracticable up to the present time to suggest that such reclamation be attempted on a widespread scale.

Aside from the prosecution of particular problems, such as venereal disease control, there has been a growing interest on the part of state councils of defense in the maintenance of civilian health generally. The recent development of this interest has been the result, partly of a clearer realization that, in the words of the President, "This war is one of nations—not of armies," partly of the depletion of the normal facilities by which health is maintained, and partly of the establishment of the community councils of defense, which have made available unique machinery for carrying a message to the masses and which, from the beginning, have had health as one of the objectives set before them.

It is only fair that the first example of this interest on the part of state councils should be one of many months standing. The Committee on Sanitation and Medicine of the Texas State Council of Defense, has been working on a plan which has included the following elements. Since November, 1917, the committee has drawn up a weekly "health-hint," which it has sent to 350 daily and weekly newspapers in the state, to be printed during the week of release in uniform boxed style under the heading, "Help Win the War by Preventing Unnecessary Sickness." Some of these "health-hints" have given specific information regarding the avoidance and cure of specific diseases; others have urged citizens to take stock of their present local health machinery and, where necessary, to agitate for more ample machinery. The committee made a survey of health conditions in Orange, where ship-building has suddenly doubled the population, and published recommendations which got local citizens agencies working and has resulted, among other improvements, in provision for a full-time health officer. The Texas committee stands ready to advise other communities directly regarding specific problems. In general, however, its task is to encourage every community to constitute a "Citizens' Committee on Public Health," consisting of representatives of all local organizations (eleven kinds being suggested by the state council), to hold weekly meetings at which health officials shall be introduced to the public they are trying to serve, to make rapid practical surveys of local health organization and to work for better machinery, if necessary, and to spread simple information regarding personal hygiene. Other examples have been the circulation of Pamphlet No. 3 of the Department of Civic Relief of the Pennsylvania State Council of Defense,

entitled "Community Organization in War Time—Health" (which is discussed in another article), and the instigation by the Woman's Division and State Council of a survey of the health administration of the State of Delaware, through the New York Bureau of Municipal Research.

Recently, there has been evidence that state councils of defense, although at the time of writing (July) no formal recommendation from the national government has yet been sent them on the subject, are anxious to carry public health activities even further. The most thorough plan for a state-wide health campaign which yet has been worked out is that of the South Carolina State Council of Defense. The state council has declared the spread of information about the avoidance of disease to be strictly a war emergency measure, and set aside \$5,000 for the conduct of an intensive state-wide campaign during August, 1918. The objectives, which were worked out at a conference of health leaders called by the state council, are: child welfare, venereal diseases, insect-borne diseases—typhoid, dysentery and malaria, and tuberculosis. Chief attention will be given to the rural districts. Although the primary purpose is to tell the individuals how to keep well and to give the war as motive to act, it is expected that on the social side the campaign will arouse interest in full-time county health officers and other improvements. A two-days institute has been called to meet just before the opening of the intensive campaign, for the instruction of a corps of speakers who will then scatter in groups through the states. In addition to a speakers' handbook, leaflets giving health rules in simple language are being prepared, and every available means of publicity will be utilized by the council, which, by reason of its central position in the war work of the state, can enlist the services of all agencies in the health drive.

Doubtless, even if they were left entirely to their own initiative, many state councils would undertake somewhat similar health campaigns. It is probable that the Council of National Defense, however, which has been waiting until the time was ripe and particularly until the community council system was under way, will shortly recommend that a public health campaign be launched in each state, to be pressed with especial vigor at first and to be carried on as a permanent activity by community councils of defense for the duration of the war. The recommendations of the Council

of National Defense to the state councils, would have to be worked out in further detail in each state to fit its peculiar conditions, which would probably involve a conference or "war congress" of the leaders in sanitation and medicine in each state, including especially the state department of health and the state committee of the Medical Section. Further, it is probable that in these recommendations the National Council will call for a campaign which will involve: first, direct and indirect pressure to secure better health facilities in localities where these are notably deficient; second, the federation in each community, through a "local health congress" under the community council, of all agencies, public and private, which touch the health and welfare of the people, in order to arrange for the maximum utilization of their facilities and to popularize these facilities; and, finally, the education of individual citizens in the reason why it is patriotic to keep well and how to do so. In so far as the resulting activities of state and local councils of defense prevent disease, they would have a vital, if indirect, bearing on all relief work. In so far as community councils of defense, in carrying out the public health program, bring together all agencies working with the people in each neighborhood, where at present they waste effort like a badly meshed grinder, they would point the way for one of the most important developments in relief work.

HEALTH AND RECREATION

BY MRS. PHILIP NORTH MOORE,

Chairman, Department of Health and Recreation, Woman's Committee, Council
of National Defense.

Another department of the Woman's Committee pertaining to war conditions of the camps and surrounding communities, is that of Safe-guarding Moral and Spiritual Forces, the health and recreation of the soldiers. The Woman's Committee recognized the need of protective work in and around the camps before the War Commission on Training Camp Activities was appointed, writing to President Wilson, urging him to use his authority in regard to the sale of liquor and moral protection from the resorts of the towns,—

writing also to the Secretaries of War and Navy, who in each case assured us everything possible would be done.

Section 13 of the Army Bill authorized the Secretary of War, and directed him, to do everything by him deemed necessary to suppress and prevent houses of ill fame within such distance as seemed to him needful of any military camp, station, fort, post, cantonment, training or mobilization place. The further authorization was so drastic that it covered every possible item from sale or supply of intoxicating liquors to rules and regulations for fines and imprisonment. The Secretary recognized his responsibility and determined that the training camps as well as the surrounding zones should not be places of temptation and peril. He realized, however, that he could not obtain the conditions necessary to the health and vitality of the soldiers without the full coöperation of the cities and towns near which the camps were located, or through which the soldiers would pass.

His first appointment to carry out this authority was the Commission on Training Camp Activities, to advise in regard to questions relating to the moral hazards in training centers, as well as to the promotion of rational recreation facilities within and without the camps. This same authority was given to the Secretary of the Navy, who appointed practically the same commission for the naval training camps. Upon the appointment of Raymond B. Fosdick as head of the Commission on Training Camp Activities of War and Navy, representatives were appointed for the training camps only, about thirty-two in number, in sixteen states. At this time, the Woman's Committee decided that this department should coöperate in every way with the authorities having access to the camps, and that the chairmen in the states should ascertain, and become familiar with, all agencies in the community interested in the camps. The state councils of defense were asked to appoint committees in states where there were no training camps, and the chairmen of this department of the Woman's Committee exercised large authority in such communities.

The authorized organizations working *within* the camps were the Young Men's Christian Association, the Knights of Columbus, theatre and division directors, libraries, athletic aids and song leaders. In all of these activities the chairmen of this department were the trained and experienced workers, called upon to furnish

entertainments, to furnish supplies for the hospitals, to care for the libraries and hostess houses of the Young Women's Christian Association and to give lessons in French. There is a message of reassurance in the fact that the boys being drafted are going to find not only decent, clean conditions in the camps, but conditions that educate and inspire.

It is, however, with the organizations working *outside* the camps that the women of the community are equally effective. Women have been a conserving power in civilization through all the ages, and now that war is working its tremendous destruction, it becomes the peculiar function of women to prevent the destruction of the moral and spiritual forces of our nation. New temptations are upon us. The men who are defending us in the army and navy must of necessity change their habits of life fundamentally. Many elements in the new life are conducive to the most healthful and vigorous growth. Other conditions are of necessity abnormal. Men are suddenly removed from the usual companionship of the women of their own families and circle of friends. They are removed from the institution which has ministered to their spiritual needs, and the readjustment to these conditions is attended with special danger, because those who gain from the intemperance and vice of others are ready to make trade of the empty time of our men under arms. The hand of the law is strong to prevent the evil, but at best the law can surround our men with a neutral atmosphere. It rests with good people, and in no small measure with good women, to create an atmosphere conducive to moral and spiritual growth.

A large field of usefulness for the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense is in the non-camp cities. There is a tendency on the part of girls to wish to go to the camp cities to spend their summer vacation or to go to the camp cities to work in order to be near the soldiers. The Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense aids in the non-camp cities in keeping the girls from going to the camp cities unless there is necessity. Whatever is done to help the girls in the non-camp cities to have the right attitude toward the soldiers and to think in terms of what they can do to be really helpful to the men and to their country, will help all of the work which the War Camp Community Service is trying to do in the camp cities.

The work of this department is threefold, recreational, preven-

tive and remedial. The first general form of work was to provide entertainments in the camps, consisting of musicals, movies, dramatic readings, vaudeville, lectures, etc., at regular intervals during the week or month. Homes were canvassed for lists of hostesses for the entertainment of soldiers on Sundays and holidays. The community organization work is that of interpreting the adjacent community to the boys in camp, and of interpreting the life of the soldier to the citizens. Every person in the community is vitally concerned, for the presence of these soldiers at their gates is bound to react on the community in some way. If the responsibility is met by constructive community effort to absorb the men, as individuals, it will not only function patriotically in helping to build a valiant army, but will also protect the community and its people.

In every state where camps of soldiers are in training the Woman's Committee has grappled with the problems created. First, there is the problem of hospitality. What will be practical and acceptable for them to undertake? One of our correspondents classifies this hospitality into retail and wholesale. The former consists of inviting the boys into the homes, taking them on motor drives, and furnishing them healthful amusements and wholesome company. Wholesale hospitality is defined as that undertaken by the big organizations where soldiers and sailors are invited en masse to lectures, entertainments or dinners.

As soon as the North Carolina Division of the Woman's Committee learned that there was to be a cantonment of some sixty thousand men near Charlotte, they at once began to lay their plans to coöperate with the city authorities in making the camp what they would desire it to be. The State Chairman wrote that the Committee on Safeguarding Moral and Spiritual Forces had been most active in arranging with all the women's organizations of the community to provide entertainment for the soldiers. They arranged that every organization in the town should adopt or stand sponsor for one company of men, furnishing them with amusements, magazines and books, inviting them to church and to dinner, opening their club or society rooms to them and in every way possible surrounding them with wholesome and friendly influences. The Committee Chairman wrote that the women were planning to be just as attentive to the soldiers who came to them as strangers from New England as they were to their own boys, and she added, "we expect that strangers will do the same for our boys."

Certainly Massachusetts reciprocated this thoughtfulness. A special committee from the women's colleges provided club houses and homes outside the camp. Their purpose was to have as many of these homes as possible where soldiers would find recreation, friendly interest and refined surroundings; the kind of homes from which the majority of them had come. Each home was provided for by a separate college group, either alumnae, undergraduates, or both, and each had a college "mother." The college mother was permanent or as nearly so as possible, but the helpers varied from week to week. A few gave their services in the home itself and others provided the things needed to make the home attractive—furnishings, games, books, pianos, victrolas. Such an undertaking was particularly practicable in the case of the reserve officer training camps made up largely of college men. With modifications to suit local needs the plan has been worked out to advantage in connection with many camps.

A helpful camp service in which many of our state divisions coöperated was that undertaken by the American Library Association. It organized committees to collect and distribute reading matter in the training camps and even prepared to put up libraries in some of the camps. The Missouri Division took hold of this work with particular zest, giving the matter wide publicity, and arranging for the collection of books at local libraries throughout the states. It even planned to furnish boxes of the proper dimensions in which to pack the books collected. Several of the groups of women involved have reechoed the word laid down by the Library Association, that only worthwhile books are wanted. "Give the boys the best. They want good fiction. They are keen for scientific books and periodicals. They want everything you can give them about war, about sports, they want the news of the world."

Where soldiers are temporarily camped in a town, or where they are travelling, one much appreciated attention is the supervision of the food which they receive. This was managed very well by the Woman's Committee in Grand Rapids, Michigan. They responded immediately not only to the call of furnishing good wholesome amusements for the boys mobilized at their gates, but during the two weeks when the camp of eight hundred boys was at Grand Rapids they furnished the meals. The different days of the week were assigned to various organizations, so that while hundreds of

women were engaged in the feeding of the soldiers, no one group was in constant service. In the two weeks the women furnished 1300 meals, including breakfasts, dinners and suppers. They did it so economically that from the allotment of twenty-five cents per head a meal, they had a surplus to go into the mess fund of the Grand Rapids Battalion. The boys were satisfied, for when the camp broke up praise came to the women from all sides for the catering they had done.

Of all the problems presented in war camp communities, none is more fundamental in working out a community program than that of giving to the girls a feeling of their personal responsibility in helping to win the war and in making our men fit for service. The committee on protective work for girls has endeavored to secure not only adequate protection, but helpful and stimulating activity in entertainments.

Many people ask why War Camp Community Service is emphasizing at this time work for girls rather than for boys. Our reply is that the girls and women of America have a part to play in winning the war, the importance of which cannot be estimated. The moral standard of a nation, whether at war or in time of peace, can be no higher than that of its women. Upon the attitude of the girl towards the soldier will depend his attitude towards her. The girl must feel her individual responsibility.

Working through all available machinery the girls and young women of America have been offered channels of expression for their patriotic impulses, means for increasing their efficiency, opportunities for making the community a better place in which to live, through fostering the spirit which community singing, pageants and a broader community social life create. America's girls must not only *feel* that they count; they *must* count in the world struggle.

The War Camp Community Service under Mr. Fosdick has made this patriotic work of great value, and in asking for assistance from this committee he said: "Wherever there is a trained and experienced worker in the community will you see that she is in touch with the War Camp Service? It will be helpful if it is understood that the Girls' Committee is free to turn to the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense for assistance and moral support whenever it is needed."

A survey was accordingly conducted by the chairmen of this

department in twenty-one states of places of entertainment in camp vicinities. These included public amusement places, such as dance halls, moving picture shows, restaurants, theatres, etc., the licensing of the same, the inspection by police officers, sanitary arrangements, sale of liquor, etc. They have been ready with this information in most helpful coöperation. Every sort of natural relation should be established. Churches should make the soldiers of their respective denominations feel, not only that they are welcome, but that they are members of whom active participation is desired. Social occasions where the soldiers will meet girls and women under natural and wholesome conditions are especially important. Officers and men are asked to receptions, dances, outings and parties of all sorts. If a regiment has a good band or glee club it is asked to give a concert.

The public resources of the community are placed at the disposal of officers and men. Playgrounds, gymnasiums and swimming pools are open to them. Libraries, museums and other public buildings extend their Saturday afternoon hours and are open Sunday—the soldiers' one day off. Recreation centers are utilized for their entertainment and for entertainments given by them. To all public places the uniform should be a ticket of admission. The city often takes part by furnishing official receptions for the soldiers thereby showing that the community has faith in them, and by organizing community singing on an inspiring scale (a matter to which the commission is devoting especial attention).

The responsibility placed upon the committees and upon all the citizens is very great, but it is one which we believe will be met as it has never been met before in the history of military camps. And the opportunity is commensurate to the responsibility. The first victories of our war can be won right here at home by the citizens, and largely by the women of those communities to which has been entrusted the high responsibility of testifying the country's hospitality to its defenders. In many large camp cities the Woman's Committee has organized soldiers' and sailors' clubs, of great variety in entertainment, reading matter, quarters for furlough needs, etc. Members of the same communities have opened clubs, athletic associations, swimming pools and gymnasiums to the men.

Women police and protective officers are established in twenty

states, and the experience has been uniformly satisfactory. They are appointed in some cases by the police boards, which appointment brings them directly under political influence: this has not been, however, so much of a menace as was feared. The better appointments, under present camp conditions, have come from the mayors and boards of public welfare in cities near the camps. The women have been found to be courageous and cool in time of danger, and endowed with tact and discretion. They are and should be women of the highest type in character and position, and ready to serve without thought of reward.

When the Connecticut troops were mobilized in temporary camps in New Haven, Niantic and about New London, a survey was made which revealed conditions of temptation in the communities about the camps and also the undesirable mingling of objectionable women with the soldiers in the camp grounds. Following the receipt of the survey of Connecticut conditions, Mr. Fosdick, of the Committee on Training Camp Activities, sent a representative to New London. The result of careful and intensive work in New London has been evidenced by an effort on the part of the police force to improve conditions.

Later a statement regarding camp conditions with reference to morals was made to the Chairman of the State Council of Defense and a resolution was adopted calling upon the State Council of Defense to appropriate the salaries of five police-women for duty in and about the military camps and naval stations. The police-women were given authority by the Department of State Police, and the first commission given to Dr. Valeria Parker, Chairman of this department for Connecticut. Through the police-women a number of undesirable girls and women were taken into custody from the camps, and numerous home investigations made. An effort was made to handle each case individually.

A survey of institutions willing to take mothers and their babies following confinement was made with a view to being prepared for a possible increase in illegitimacy.

Following a request from the New England Travelers' Aid Society, a local Travelers' Aid group was organized in each town for the purpose of acting as a bureau of information and advice for girls and women intending to visit Camp Devens, at Ayer, Massachusetts. The Department recommended remedial work in con-

nnection with authorities around the camps, such as judges and women probation officers of the juvenile court, women physicians, men and women of the community and other agencies; that local and state agencies be utilized such as municipal and state farms; that each case be considered as far as possible individually; that agencies for the care of young mothers should be utilized, such as maternity and Florence Crittenton homes.

The Social Hygiene Division of the Commission on Training Camp Activities is sending out lecturers and weekly bulletins, and the coöperation on the part of the chairmen of this department has been very satisfactory.

For the first time in history America's boys are being sent to fight in Europe; for the first time in history means are being taken to safeguard them morally and socially. We are proud that the scandals of former wars relating to disease in camps are now nearly eradicated. We are more proud that in this war our boys are being saved from the scandals of both physical and moral disease; that we shall see them return as fit to fight the battles of life as they are to fight the battles of liberty and democracy.

MAINTENANCE OF EXISTING SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCIES

BY MRS. PHILIP NORTH MOORE,

Chairman, Department of Maintenance of Existing Social Service Agencies,
Woman's Committee, Council of National Defense.

The Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense has planned and carried out certain lines of war work which might well be called "Relief Work under War Conditions." The department, Maintenance of Existing Social Service Agencies, was established for the purpose of maintaining the same standards of service activities during war time that have existed during peace; the conserving of the agencies that operate to maintain public morals, public health and the producing forces of the community.

We emphasized the President's statement urging the importance of keeping the full force and efficiency of all the agencies for social work, and of securing for all of them adequate support, in view of

the new and pressing demands created by the war,—especially those agencies which make for the preservation and improvement of public health and family life, the protection of motherhood and the preservation of children from the destructive and demoralizing influences of war. We all know our charities are unfortunately the first to suffer in any crisis, and it was anticipated that war conditions would make heavy inroads upon the financial support given to them in time of peace. Nothing seemed more certain, however, than that the need for these agencies would be more and more pressing as the conditions of normal life broke down under the strain of war.

Appeals which have arisen under the unusual conditions caused by the war quickly arouse the sympathies of the people. It was feared that contributors to specific charities might withdraw their support on account of their intense interest in new causes. It was not the intention to organize new associations, but to secure support and coöperation necessary to maintain agencies for guarding public welfare, such as district nursing, day nurseries, civilian hospitals, philanthropies, charities and recognized forms of social service.

Forty states and the District of Columbia and Hawaii complied with the request to form a department, with the following suggestions: to ascertain the needs of the philanthropic agencies; to send out a questionnaire as to the extent resources had been curtailed by the war, financially or in working force; what volunteer service might be utilized; whether paid workers needed in other pursuits could be replaced by volunteers; whether the burden of work had increased since war was declared; to name the service which their beneficiaries could render; what supervision and training these agencies would give to volunteers, and the qualifications and efficiency of volunteer workers sent to them.

Charts of the "opportunities for the service of women" in connection with the needs of various charities were recommended and were placed in local headquarters. In order to render such service more efficient, volunteers were urged to undertake some training; consequently a list of training classes in philanthropy and social service were posted side by side with the opportunities for service. These suggestions are given prominence, because they have been acted upon and pronounced helpful. Organizations, and institutions such as libraries, churches and colleges, have sent for the survey and questionnaire and have reported many calls for the same.

The states have reported very remarkable response to the requests. Illinois, for instance, reported advisory committees of professional social workers,—a propaganda committee to gather information and arrange it for the purpose of bringing before the public the necessity of maintaining social service agencies,—volunteers to devise means of coöperation between the social service department and the agencies in the matter of volunteer service,—group service to use the services of groups where energy was not utilized along the lines of occupational service,—state coöperation to keep informed of the status of the work throughout the state,—speakers, publicity and a budget or war chest system of great success. Illinois also organized special classes at the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, in which volunteers were taught to do social work.

Missouri reported that the war has changed our national life almost entirely, but it has not lessened the poor, the care of orphans, etc. War pressure upon 100,000,000 people for rigid economy in use of food and clothing, with an increase of 25 per cent in the cost of staple articles of diet, means that the need of charity work will perhaps reach its maximum during the present winter. High prices and the coal shortage will be felt with ever-increasing acuteness as the weeks go by. Organizations for children, for the aged and delinquents or for furnishing food and clothing to the needy, are facing heavily increased maintenance costs.

Americans must profit by the mistakes of other countries. Our charities must have not only former support but greater gifts to cover higher costs of food, fuel, and clothing. Home charities are a part of war's own problem. England, France and Germany realized this, after a season of neglect during which juvenile delinquency and debasement of public morals increased to such menacing proportions that the people quickly returned to the full support of their municipal charities.

Indications throughout the country seemed to demand co-ordination in raising such funds, a budget or war chest for one sum, to be apportioned as needed or as requested by the contributors. This war chest in some cases included contributions for the Red Cross, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A., according to the "drive," and the apportionment for the locality. For the philanthropic and social service agencies, the apportionment was generally the amount used in 1917-18, plus a percentage of increase under war conditions.

for 1918-19. Reports indicate a very gratifying return to all these requests for contributions. Some interesting slogans were used, such as: "Give one day's income out of the month for every month in the year." The general report is that there has been very little falling off in regular contributions, but a much greater need in many directions, due to the war.

The Committee on Nursing of the General Medical Board of the Council of National Defense invited the assistance and co-operation of the Woman's Committee in the work of increasing the supply of nurses for home and foreign service. The plan of such a committee included a survey of the present nursing resources of the country, stimulation of the interest of educated young women in nursing as a war service, the increase of hospital training school facilities and the securing of suitable publicity in the local press. In order that the State Divisions might give the greatest measure of co-operation, the requests were referred through this Department to the state chairmen of the department for transmission of the information.

Assistance in conducting the survey has been given the State Nurses' Association by our chairmen in fifteen states. Nurses have been supplied for military service, and given military standing; a list of institutions in the United States, with the requirement for entrance, was prepared by Nebraska; recruits for training in hospitals were secured to make up the shortage caused by the call for nurses in overseas service. The call of the Surgeon General for from 25,000 to 30,000 nurses by 1919, means that the reserve is being depleted. The fact that trained nurses are needed in city and private hospitals and in public health nursing in city and state, has induced a new drive for an enrollment of a *Student Nurse Reserve*. This is being conducted by the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense under the direction of the Resident Director.

THE CHILDREN'S YEAR AND THE WOMAN'S COMMITTEE

BY JESSICA B. PEIXOTTO,

Executive Chairman, Child Welfare Department, Woman's Committee,
Council of National Defense.

When appointed a part of the Council of National Defense, April 21, 1917, the Woman's Committee organized at once into ten departments. One of these was the Department of Child Welfare.

The primary business of the Woman's Committee was to effect an organization of the woman power of the country and so put a force of no mean value for war work at the disposal of the government. This business of centralizing and coördinating the ninety-two national organizations, including about eleven million women now affiliated with the committee, was no light task. It occupied the Woman's Committee for the first months of its existence. When the state divisions had finally been organized, when counties, towns, districts, wards and even precincts had been provided with committees paralleling the organization of the Woman's Committee at Washington, the result of eight months of energetic effort was some ten thousand units of organization ready to take up the numerous services the war has laid upon the citizenship of the country.

A program of Child Welfare had been prepared. In April, 1917, Mrs. Josiah Evans Cowles, a member of the committee and also President of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, became the national chairman of the Department of Child Welfare. With admirable keenness of vision, Mrs. Cowles and the Woman's Committee turned at once to Miss Julia Lathrop, Chief of the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, inviting her to take the executive chairmanship of the Department of Child Welfare and direct the war-time program for children.

It was a fortunate arrangement, this close coöperation between the Woman's Committee and the Children's Bureau. Both parties to the plan were strengthened by it: the community was assured a sound program of democratic work for children. Allying itself with the Woman's Committee, the Children's Bureau gained the use of an organization with a wider grasp and reach than any ever before effected in the nation's history. The Woman's Committee, on the

other hand, was enabled to act with the least possible amateurishness; its Child Welfare Department became in the best sense an extension of a government bureau and thus, from the start, avoided those wastes that arise from paralleling government work. Thus there are two groups always mutually dependent,—trained government investigators sobered by the discipline of regular research work, and enthusiastic volunteers as rich in eager earnestness as they are apt to be poor in experience, now collaborating to work out the program and push the events of the "Children's Year."

The period from May to December, 1917, was a time of preliminaries. What correspondence went out to the state divisions of the Woman's Committee went from the Children's Bureau. The Chief of the Children's Bureau in her fifth annual report of June, 1917, page 49, writes:

The pressing essentials of a reasonable child-welfare program for the United States in war time may be condensed under four heads:

- I. Public protection of maternity and infancy.
- II. Mothers' care for older children.
- III. Enforcement of all child-labor laws and full schooling for all children of school age. Standards should be maintained in spite of war pressure.
- IV. Recreation for children and youth, abundant, decent, protected from any form of exploitation.

This program the Woman's Committee adopted at their December meeting as the program of their Child Welfare Department. It was plain that to set the details of such a program before forty-eight states and three territories would require much special attention. Miss Lathrop knew her staff at the bureau was more than occupied with their regular service of research. She therefore suggested that a separate service be provided through the Council of National Defense to make the connection between the bureau's program and the women's defense organizations of the country. At the December meeting of the Woman's Committee, Dr. Jessica B. Peixotto, professor of social economics at the University of California, was invited to take charge of this service.

The separate service for the work of organizing, corresponding and transmitting has, in the period since January, grown to a large clerical force busily and breathlessly engaged in sending out hundreds of letters, thousands of leaflets, pamphlets, posters and other printed matter for propaganda and publicity, and millions of weighing and measuring cards.

During the months that lie between January 15 and the time of writing this report, the Children's Year has been announced; the state divisions of the Woman's Committee have accepted the responsibility the program lays upon them, for the most part with alacrity and fine imagination. Thorough-going child welfare departments have been organized in all but one state. One conference of the state chairmen of child welfare has been held at Washington. Hearty participation in the work at such points as mutual objects permit has been given by the National Committee on Child Welfare of the General Medical Board under Dr. S. McC. Hamill; the Department of Civilian Relief of the American Red Cross through its director general, Mr. W. Frank Persons; the nursing section of the American Red Cross under Miss Jane Delano; the nursing section of the Council of National Defense through Miss Ella Phillips Crandall; the United States Bureau of Education, United States Public Health Service and the United States Department of Agriculture, and by more than a score of national societies interested in the recreation of children.

The plan all this machinery furthers, the plan to take thought in time to save the children, sensitive source of our future population, was named "The Children's Year." When this "Children's Year" program of prevention and protection was set before President Wilson by the Secretary of Labor, the nation's leader promptly expressed his belief in the wisdom and foresight of it. The following letter addressed to Secretary Wilson appeared in the press April 3:

Next to the duty of doing everything possible for the soldiers at the front, there could be, it seems to me, no more patriotic duty than that of protecting the children who constitute one-third of our population. The success of the efforts made in England in behalf of the children is evidenced by the fact that the infant death-rate in England for the second year of the war was the *lowest* in her history.

Attention is now being given to education and labor conditions for children by legislatures in both France and England, showing that the conviction among the Allies is that the protection of childhood is essential to winning the war.

I am very glad that the same processes are being set afoot in this country and I heartily approve the plan of the Children's Bureau and the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense for making the second year of the war one of united activity on behalf of the children and in that sense a *Children's Year*.

I trust that the year will not only see the goal reached of saving 100,000 lives of infants and young children, but that the work may so successfully develop as to set up certain irreducible minimum standards for health, education, and work for the American Child.

Cordially and sincerely yours,

WOODROW WILSON.

The general challenge of the Children's Year calls for a square deal for all children young and old. The one most definite task set down in the program for the states is the summons to save 100,000 babies. The facts at home and abroad warranted the summons even in war time, perhaps most of all in war time.

Careful investigations continuously prove at least one-third of the deaths of infants unnecessary. The first draft showed that about one-fourth of the defects which sent young men home humiliated by a discharge might have been remedied in childhood. Life-saving, always a duty, becomes imperative in war time; physical deterioration is at such a time more than ever to be avoided. To do away with preventable death and defect is the most definite business of "Children's Year."

What had happened in other warring countries proved such a step not merely advisable but imperative. Shortly after England entered into the war it was found that human life was being used up at two points. Her men were dying on the battlefields of France, but, in great part because of war conditions, her mothers and babies were dying at home faster than usual. Alarmed at the situation, the government took prompt steps to prevent such unnecessary loss of life. England's slogan, adopted to advertise the situation, was somewhat beyond the facts, but artistic exaggeration is often more effective than scientific exactness. The posters that warned England of the danger menacing the future population bore the legend, "It is safer to be a soldier in France than a baby at home."

The Children's Year program should save us in the United States the thrill of horror that ran through the English as they read this legend. England took prompt action. The results show what intelligent group action can do for social improvement. The death rate, which had risen to 110 in a thousand, was brought down to 91 in a thousand, the lowest mortality rate on record for England. France, too, in spite of the war that strains her heart and nerve, has since 1914 taken steps to see that "no woman is ignored and no child forgotten." In Belgium the corrective and preventive work being done is first of all work for children; in Italy, thorough-going precautions are under way; Germany's solicitude about the protection of her next generation has been unremitting. These precedents of foresight added to our own investigations already mentioned were warrant for the challenge to save 100,000 babies for the nation when life must be used up on the field of honor.

As first precautionary step, a stock-taking, as it were, of the children of pre-school age was suggested,—a weighing and measuring test. The height and weight of a child is a rough index of its physical development. The weighing and measuring test was therefore proposed to get this height and weight for every child of pre-school age in the country. The period from April 6—the beginning of the Children's Year—to June 6, was the time appointed for carrying on this ambitious enterprise never before undertaken in this country. All but one state have undertaken the test. In most it is still going on. The Children's Bureau has issued and the Woman's Committee has distributed over six million cards. When these are filled out and returned, the results will be tabulated and published. In the meantime, however, in each community where the work of conservation with "scales and a tape measure" has wisely begun, special notes have been taken and a stock of facts will call for special action. Malnutrition that stunts growth should have been identified: the appropriate treatment, especially sufficient milk and other food, should follow.

In general, after the weighing and measuring test, those specially interested in child hygiene will be urged to push other adequate measures that save babies for the nation. The best means for educating the individual and the community are public health nurses. More of these trained women are needed, more fully equipped and paid properly in money and repute. One hundred per cent birth registration we must have instead of our present slatternly social accounting. Better prenatal care, better obstetrical care, more infant welfare stations and health centers are also to be urged. In a word, a widespread and unremitting propaganda for the best preventive health measures is to spread all over the land, not only in the urban districts, but in the rural as well.

To plan and to urge is the part of the central government. The Children's Bureau and the Woman's Committee have done this work. Thanks to a fine display of energy and initiative on the part of forty-seven state chairmen, thanks to the hearty response from some 11,000 unit chairmen, a thing which needed to be done is being carried on in a manner that warrants high faith in the outcome.

On the whole it is possible to report progress in all but one state. The work everywhere regularly improves in quantity, intensity and quality. The social chasms are narrowing. Ingenuity

has raised money by special quest, from private benevolence, or, in a dozen states, from state funds. The press has generously given publicity, repeating facts again and again and with increasing detail; answering doubts and teaching that children, a part of the nation's defense and strength, must be protected, not used up. A dozen states have posters that blazon this forth. In several states, buttons of various devices decorate the person, or testimonial cards hang in the homes of those whose little ones have been weighed. Before the Children's Year is over, every "publicity" expedient will be tried. Each week sees a widening circle of the men of the defense organizations and the general public quickening to the call of its program.

The Children's Bureau provides the call; the Woman's Committee and the state divisions answer; the men and women of the country are rallying so that it is fairly certain that the stigma of ignorance and failure to provide for the nation's future citizens will not fall upon us. New tasks and opportunities will come as the drives for healthy play, more months of school, and assured home care are added to the present well-announced drive for health. When children bear burdens, the nation suffers; when children lack schooling that prepares them for life, the nation suffers; when they lack mothers' care and home life, they and the nation suffer most of all. The Children's Year means constructive conservation. If its program can be realized the nation's children will walk more freely to be the strength of the next generation.

WAR WORK IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

By C. A. PROSSER,
Director of the Federal Board for Vocational Education.

As the law provides they shall be, the activities of the Federal Board for Vocational Education are largely coöperative. This board administers federal grants in aid of vocational education in the states, and it is at present largely engaged in providing emergency war training for conscripted men, and in organizing for undertaking national reëducation and return to civil employment of men disabled in the war.

Federal grants become available each year, in amounts increasing from approximately \$1,650,000 in 1917-18, to \$7,160,000 in 1925-26 and annually thereafter, and if accepted by the states the federal grants must be matched by equal amounts of state money. In the past ten months, since the board organized, all of the states without exception have accepted grants, matching federal with state money to be expended for promoting vocational education in the public schools throughout the country.

It is a rare event when our sovereign states elect unanimously to take any single course even when their own best interests point the way clearly, and the event of the forty-eight states taking unanimous action involving expenditure of state money within a brief period of ten months under a permissive federal statute is unique in our history. It is in itself conclusive proof that the federal law in this instance has been wisely conceived by Congress to insure widespread social benefits.

The law which has been thus unanimously accepted by the states is a law for democratizing our public school education, by adapting it to the needs of those who must prepare to take up the commoner wage-earning pursuits in agriculture, industry, or commerce. Under the law, also, vocational education is provided in continuation part-time or evening courses for those who have already entered upon some wage-earning pursuit.

VOCATIONAL COURSES SET UP IN THE STATES

In the past ten months the Federal Board has organized its staff of experts in various lines, and of regional agents for inspection of schools federally aided; has formulated its policies of federal coöperation covering the entire field of vocational education in the states for agriculture, trades and industries, and home management; has approved state plans setting up vocational courses in each of the 48 states, and allotted federal money available under these plans for the fiscal year 1917-18; and has maintained inspection of courses as they have been established in numerous local communities. Federally aided vocational courses have been set up in agriculture in 41 states, in trade and industrial subjects in 32 states, and in home economics in 29 states; 22 states have organized courses in each of these three fields; in 46 states teacher training courses have been organized.

The record of the states in this work is impressive, especially when it is borne in mind that the record covers an initial period of only ten months. In Massachusetts, for example, vocational agriculture is being taught in 19 secondary schools with federal aid; trade and industrial subjects in 36 schools; and home economics in 29 schools. In New York the number of federally aided secondary schools is for agriculture 69, and for trades and industries 40; in Pennsylvania, for agriculture 38, for trades and industries 131, and for home economics 69; in California, for agriculture 12, for trades and industries 14, and for home economics 14; in Indiana, for agriculture 37, and for trades and industries 21; in Mississippi, for agriculture 34, for trades and industries 1, and for home economics 3. These states are taken at random merely as illustrations of the widespread development of secondary vocational education. The record for other states is equally impressive.

EMERGENCY WAR TRAINING

As it happens, the coöperation of the Federal Board during the past ten months has extended far beyond the scope of activities contemplated in the organic law under which the board operates. The administrative machinery built up for undertaking the joint federal and state enterprise of promoting vocational education in the country as a whole has been commandeered for war service,—

or rather, being immediately available for such service, it has been freely tendered to the war offices and has been by them freely utilized.

Immediately upon its organization, the staff of the Federal Board, in compliance with the general policy approved by the board to render such assistance to the government as it might legitimately do in the emergency of war, began to take on war work. The training of conscripted men for army occupations was conceived to be the sort of vocational education which might most properly be promoted immediately. Under supervision of the Federal Board, war emergency training classes for conscripted men have been organized in the public schools throughout the country. A series of war emergency training courses for army occupations has been prepared, and these courses have been adopted extensively not only for classes organized under the direct supervision of the board, but as well for classes organized by the War Department among men enlisted in the army and for classes conducted on a commercial basis under private civilian control.

The emergency war training bulletins of the Federal Board include emergency training courses in shipbuilding for shipyard workers; mechanical and technical training for conscripted men (Air Division, U. S. Signal Corps); training for motor truck drivers and chauffeurs; for machine shop occupations, blacksmithing, sheet-metal working, and pipe fitting; for electricians, telephone repair men, linesmen, and cable splicers; for gas engine, motor car, and motorcycle repair men; for oxy-acetylene welders; and for airplane mechanics, engine repair men, wood-workers, riggers, and sheet-metal workers. The preparation of these courses and the organization of training classes has been undertaken at the request of, and in coöperation with the Signal Corps and the Quartermaster Corps in the War Department, and the United States Shipping Board.

Growing out of conferences between officials of the Federal Board for Vocational Education and officers of the General Staff, an arrangement was perfected late in October, with the approval of the Secretary of War, for the utilization of the educational facilities of the United States by the Federal Board in coöperation with the War Department for the purpose of training drafted men in various occupations prior to their reporting at the cantonments. An order

signed by the Adjutant General of the War Department under date of November 3, 1917, issued to the commanding generals of all departments and to the chiefs of bureaus, reads in part as follows:

1. The Secretary of War directs that you be informed as follows:

a. The Federal Board for Vocational Education, authorized by act of Congress, February 23, 1917, of which Dr. C. A. Prosser is director, is now organized and is in close coöperation with the vocational schools of the country. This board is prepared to institute a comprehensive system of preliminary training of men of the second and subsequent drafts prior to their reporting at cantonments. . . .

It is the desire of the Secretary of War that the chiefs of bureaus maintain close coöperation with this board, furnishing such information as to number of men desired to be trained, necessary courses, etc. For this purpose the chiefs of bureaus will deal directly with Dr. Prosser.

This work has continued and the War Training Division of the Federal Board reports that on June 13, 1917, 12,000 men had been trained through the Federal Board and state authorities for vocational education, and turned over to services—6,000 in mechanical lines, 5,000 in radio work for the army, navy and mercantile marine, and 1,000 in clerical occupations for Quartermaster Corps work. It estimates that an additional 3,000 men have been trained by private agencies through impetus given to the work by the Federal Board, using Federal Board courses of instruction. Incomplete reports from state vocational authorities for May, return over 6,000 men in training—3,370 in radio classes, and 2,508 in mechanical classes,—and it is estimated, on the basis of April returns, that the complete reports for May will show the number in training to be at least 7,500. On June 13, the May reports showed 165 radio classes, operated in 38 states, and 172 mechanical classes in 49 communities in 14 states. Almost daily reports of additional classes being formed were coming in from California, Wisconsin, Missouri, New York and Pennsylvania. Since the May letters were sent out urging the establishment of new classes and the continuance of those in operation, renewed activity has been reported in at least 20 states.

The Federal Board war emergency training bulletins have become standard courses in corps schools, such as the Quartermaster Corps at Camp Joseph E. Johnston, Jacksonville, Florida. Of these bulletins or course outlines some 25,000 copies have been furnished directly or indirectly to the War Department Committee on Education and Special Training for use in its classes, in

which the number reported in training was 7,086 in April, 10,685 in May, and 26,666 in June. Contracts in force provided for the training of 100,000 men during the current year. This training under military control has been found necessary to provide for the needs of the army, in addition to the training in voluntary classes under the Federal Board.

The esteem in which the Adjutant General's office holds the results of Federal Board training is well indicated by the following order issued to the department commanders under date of May 7th.

Draft men sent division from the May draft and all subsequent drafts who have certificates showing that they have been instructed in certain subjects in schools under the direction of the Federal Board for Vocational Education should be given assignments where they can utilize the training obtained in these schools. You are directed to instruct your personal officers to record on classification card the training each man has received and make assignments accordingly.

MCCAIN.

Classes in shipbuilding occupations have been established in coöperation with the Federal Board in the following states:

North Carolina—Wilmington, evening.
Pennsylvania—Chester, Girard College students.
Ohio—Cleveland, evening classes; Lorain, evening classes.
New York—Port Richmond, Staten Island, evening; Newburgh, evening;
Buffalo, evening.

Minnesota—Duluth, evening; part time.

Delaware—Wilmington, evening.

Connecticut—Bridgeport, evening, part time, all day; Housatonic, evening
and part time.

California—San Diego, evening classes; Long Beach, evening classes; San
Pedro, evening classes; Oakland, evening classes; San Francisco, evening classes;
Alameda, evening classes.

Maine—Bath, evening courses.

Oregon—Portland, evening, not confirmed; Astoria, evening, not confirmed.

Washington—Seattle, evening classes.

Bulletin No. 3, *Emergency Training in Shipbuilding*, is being used in these classes. The following states have appointed agents who will work whole or part time on these classes: Ohio, New Jersey, Texas, Connecticut, Alabama, New York and California.

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION OF MEN DISABLED IN THE WAR

Even more absorbing in its appeal to the Federal Board, because of the wide range given to vocational education as a means

of insuring human welfare, has been the investigation of methods and processes developed in the belligerent countries for vocational rehabilitation of men disabled in the war. Coincidently with its organization the board initiated its inquiries in this field, and it has passed those inquiries continuously during the past ten months. No other agency of the government was prepared to enter this field, and the government naturally turned to the Federal Board for expert service.

The enactment recently by Congress, without a dissenting vote in either house, of the Smith-Sears Act, entrusting to the Federal Board the vitally important work of reeducation and returning to civil employment men disabled in the war, is a recognition of the services of the board during the past ten months in accumulating data relating to rehabilitation work and in devising a scheme of organization for undertaking this work as our men return disabled from service. Here, also, it is provided that there shall be full and complete coöperation. The several government offices concerned with the future welfare of men discharged from the army and navy, including the medical and surgical services of the War Department and the Navy Department, the Bureau of War Risk Insurance in the Treasury, and the labor exchanges in the Department of Labor, together with the Federal Board, will each render service in retaining and returning to civil employment men disabled in the war. The Federal Board will act in an advisory capacity in providing vocational training for men during their convalescence in the military hospitals before their discharge from the army or navy, and will continue such training to finality after discharge, as the civilian agency of rehabilitation and placement in industry.

The time of the members of the board and of the director and his staff has been largely occupied in conferences with representatives of other federal offices, state organizations, casualty insurance companies, chambers of commerce, the Red Cross, and other associations interested in the retraining of men disabled in the war. Out of these conferences the original draft of the Smith-Sears law was formulated. A joint committee of the Senate and House of Representatives conducted public hearings upon the bill, which as finally improved passed both Houses of Congress unanimously. This bill imposes upon the Federal Board new responsibilities which in the immediate future, at least, will be of equal importance with

those imposed by the organic act creating the board. The publications of the board in this field embrace several bulletins, one of over 300 pages. In preparation for the assumption of the new responsibilities, the director, a member of the board, and representatives of the staff have visited Canadian institutions for retraining disabled men. The secretary of the Canadian Invalided Soldiers' Commission, Mr. T. B. Kidner, who has developed this work in Canada, appeared before the joint committee in support of the proposed legislation, and he has temporarily undertaken to assist the board in the organization of the work in this country under the Smith-Sears Act.

OPENING A LARGER FIELD OF USEFULNESS

A still larger field of usefulness is opened up to the Federal Board and for vocational education in general, since it is in mind that the experience gained in the work of reeducating men disabled in the war, and the administrative machinery and expert service developed for this work shall all be utilized after the war for rehabilitating the victims of industry, as well as the thousands of natural cripples who in the past have been abandoned to hopeless indigence.

The Federal Board has thus undertaken to promote vocational education in the states, and so to promote the development of such education in the present emergency as to provide for the special needs of the war and of men disabled in the war. In each of these fields it has appeared as an administrative agency of coördination and coöperation, and it has conceived a vision of usefulness in the future which it believes to be in a fair way of realization.

These are the large aspects of the Federal Board's operation and policies during the brief period that comprehends its own organization, its entrance into entirely new fields of vocational education, its extension of service into each of the 48 states, and its preparation for the assumption of new responsibilities in rehabilitating the disabled and crippled.

A survey of the past ten months warrants the conclusion that the program of vocational education is in a fair way of being realized even beyond the most sanguine hopes of those who have in the past participated in formulating that program. Education in the public schools is rapidly being democratized and adapted to the needs of our citizenship. In realizing this program the states have

responded splendidly. State education authorities also responded splendidly to the appeal of the federal government, through the Federal Board, to demonstrate the practical utility of vocational education in the exacting emergency of war. The institutions providing vocational training for conscripted men have stood the acid test of devising schemes of training to meet the special requirements of waging war. This demonstration of social service in a great emergency will stand to the credit of vocational education after the war is won as fulfilling the highest ideals of its advocates, and it may confidently be anticipated that the achievements in the future, when the community returns to its peaceful pursuits, will even exceed those rendered in war time.

HOUSING FOR WAR WORKERS ENGAGED ON ARMY AND NAVY CONTRACTS

BY JAMES FORD,

Manager, Home Registration and Information Division,
Bureau Industrial Housing and Transportation.

The problem of housing munition workers was serious in America prior to our entrance in the war. In Bridgeport and various other cities filling war orders for our Allies, there was considerable pressure of population and a shortage of accommodation. This shortage became much more serious and this whole problem more widespread, after our entrance in the war. Building materials, labor and capital, were difficult to secure, prices of both materials and labor high, and private construction became considerably reduced even when the need of construction was rapidly increasing. Construction by the federal government was therefore imperative.

It was quickly recognized that house building was an important part of the war program; it was seen that it would be impossible to get an adequate labor supply or to hold it, unless the workmen were properly housed in convenient, sanitary dwellings accessible to their work shops, and offered at a rental which they could afford to pay. An allotment of \$50,000,000 was made by Congress in March, 1918, to provide for building houses for workers in the shipyards. Subsequently \$25,000,000 was added to the fund; this \$75,000,000 is

expended under the direction of A. Merritt Taylor of the Emergency Fleet Corporation.

In February, 1918, the Bureau of Industrial Housing and Transportation was created, of which Otto M. Eidritz is director, for the purpose of providing for the construction of houses for industrial operatives engaged on army or navy contracts. After considerable debate Congress voted \$50,000,000 to this Bureau for use throughout the country and \$10,000,000 more for the housing of government clerks in Washington. Subsequently, \$40,000,000 has been added to this fund, making \$100,000,000 altogether available to meet this national emergency.

Investigations have been made in scores of American cities upon recommendation coming from the local agencies, or from the army or navy. Where acute housing shortage has been found to be a cause of rapid labor turnover, or the output of war materials was retarded by lack of available homes for workmen, measures have been taken to secure the necessary dwellings. The procedure is, first to make a thorough canvass of the local problem to find out if the shortage is actual, and to discover its nature, for one city may need houses for single labor, another for unskilled married operatives, and another for skilled operatives. Many need houses for all these groups. After the actual and prospective needs of the community are ascertained attempts have been made to solve the local problem through improved transportation and through canvass and registration of vacancies of the city and its suburbs. In a number of places it has been possible by these devices to solve the local problem without new construction and in practically every instance the shortage has been somewhat relieved by these methods.

For example,—special train service has been provided from the highly congested district of Perth Amboy, South Amboy and Morgan to Asbury Park. An elaborate vacancy canvass revealed approximately 700 vacant houses and flats, and many thousand vacant rooms available for the use of industrial operatives. Express trains from Asbury Park to the factories of this district were run each morning and night and with tickets available for workers in government plants at 30 cents for the round trip. A similar solution of the housing problem, through transportation, is projected from the Indiana Steel Towns, Gary, Hammond, Indiana Harbor, East Chicago, to South Chicago, where careful canvass has revealed over five thousand vacant houses and flats.

In more than a score of cities and towns, through coöperation of the national, state and city Councils of Defense, a local Homes Registration Service has been established, keeping full records of each vacancy and providing centralized, accessible information for all industrial workers in search of homes. Cities in which this service has been established are the following:

Bridgeport, Conn., Erie, Pa., Bath, Maine, New London, Conn., Norfolk, Va., Lowell, Mass., Chicago, Ill., Perth Amboy, N. J., Asbury Park, N. J., Long Branch, N. J., Butler, Pa., Easton, Pa., East Chicago, Ind., Gary, Ind., Hammond, Ind., Alliance, Ohio, Newport, R. I., Dayton, Ohio, Sharon, Pa., Newark, N. J., Rock Island, Ill., Moline, Ill., Davenport, Iowa, Cleveland, Ohio, New Brunswick, N. J., Niagara Falls, N. Y., Niles, Ohio, Portsmouth, Va., Suffolk, Va., Philadelphia, Pa., Utica, N. Y., Warren, Ohio, Buffalo, N. Y., Youngstown, Ohio, Derby, Conn., Naugatuck, Conn., Canton, Ohio, Pittsburgh, Pa., Trenton, N. J., Watertown, N. Y.

Where there has been complaint of rent profiteering, a local committee has been established also, generally through the local Council of Defense, to deal with such cases. Each separate committee has sub-committees on rent adjustment, consisting generally of one representative of labor, chosen from a list prepared by the central labor union, one representative of the real estate or manufacturing interests, and a third person mutually acceptable representing the general public. In New London, where the first committee of the kind was established, more than a score of cases have been handled satisfactorily. The landlord and tenant are both summoned to appear. The facts of the case are closely analyzed. The landlord is sometimes vindicated but where he is found guilty of rent profiteering he is told that "war profits are a dishonor," that high rents reduce the production of war material and he is appealed to on moral and patriotic grounds. He is shown what would be a proper rent for his property and if he refuses to reduce his rent the facts are published, without comment, in the local paper.

In nearly forty cities additional housing has been required, the investigation having proved the community to be saturated, and industrial output to be reduced through housing shortage. To meet the needs of these communities the United States Housing Corporation was established. The officers of the corporation are:

President, Otto M. Eidritz; Vice-President, J. D. Leland 3d; Treasurer, G. G. Box; Secretary, Burt L. Fenner. The other members are Albert B. Kerr, John W. Alvord, and W. E. Shannon. It was originally expected that the government would provide loans of 80 per cent of the money used for local construction and that 20 per cent would be provided from local sources. This plan was abandoned and replaced by construction and operation solely by the government for a number of reasons. *First*, because it proved very difficult to get the different communities to agree to their share of the cost of new construction. *Second*, because under this arrangement houses could be sold as soon as constructed and there was danger that certain purchasers would not keep up their premises and thus injure the entire estate. *Third*, because delays developed from the continuous need of negotiating with the communities as to their participation in the housing development, the most prominent difficulty being their desire to put certain properties on the market, not leaving the bureau a free hand. *Fourth*, the local share of the capital was raised, in a large part, by local manufacturers; this was objectionable to the working class especially in cities in which there was but a single war industry, for workmen complained believing that their domestic life would be dominated by their employers. The houses are therefore to be built and managed by the government during the war.

The funds have actually been available to the bureau only since June, 1918. The United States Housing Corporation was established on July 11, 1918. Two weeks after the Corporation was formed land had already been purchased in over a dozen cities; old hotels had been purchased for remodelling near Portsmouth; contracts had been let at Bethlehem and Charleston and Portsmouth, Virginia, and bids were being received on the construction for Washington, Bridgeport and various other places. Plans are already drawn for more than a score of operations and contracts are let a few days after the plans are approved.

This corporation, after close analysis of the needs of the industrial cities for each type of labor employed, and after careful selection of sites, plans and builds houses ranging in number from a few score to a thousand or more. Every attempt has been made to consider the tastes and interests of the persons to be housed. A careful canvass of their desires always precedes the making of

plans. Arrangements are made to provide for the civic and social life of the future occupants in case the group of houses is located outside of the heart of an established city.

To protect the bureau against excessive payments for land, the Real Estate Division always secures estimates of the value of all acceptable sites from the mayor of the city, the local chamber of commerce and the rotary club and from a special local committee of carefully selected real estate men appointed by the National Real Estate Association. A strong appeal is made as to the importance of unbiased, discriminating and patriotic service by these committees and the land owner is induced to cut his prices down to a pre-war figure. Many of the houses, however, are built on army and navy land so that the question of purchase is not raised.

The types of houses to be constructed vary according to the needs of the locality and the type of labor to be housed. Temporary construction is of course necessary in places where industry will not continue after the war is over. In permanent communities it is more economical to construct permanent houses, so located that they will be readily salable after the war is over. Dormitories for women workers, known as residence halls, are being constructed in Washington, with a cafeteria, a central auditorium, and small recreation halls in each unit, and other features which would tend to make these wholesome and pleasing places of residence. Temporary dormitories are constructed at several of the local plants. A few apartment houses are being constructed in Washington and row or group dwellings, semi-detached houses and cottages, both for skilled and unskilled labor are to be built in industrial communities throughout the country. In all cases the desires of the workmen and their wives are carefully canvassed and an attempt is made to build houses which conform to their desires, which are practical, convenient, homelike, but which do not depart widely from the prevailing types of houses with which working men are familiar. Standard house plans, specifications and rules have been drawn up for architects, town planners and engineers.

THE NATIONAL LEAGUE FOR WOMAN'S SERVICE

BY MRS. COFFIN VAN RENSSLAER,

Vice-Chairman of the National League for Woman's Service.

To anyone who has watched the development of the war service of women volunteers in this country the credit for its volume and effectiveness must be given to the willingness and necessary energy rather than to the immediate efficiency. Probably never before in the history of American womanhood has there been a time when women have been so humble in their attitude to serve and so eager for work. We knew that in this country, no less than in England and France, the women were completely unprepared to meet the demand of a national call for trained woman power in the war emergency. Several months before the United States declared war on Germany, and when it already was apparent that our attitude of neutrality must end, women had begun to ask the question, What can we do? We knew, generally in a vague sort of way, that the English and French women were making their sacrifices and bearing their share of responsibility equally with the men, and through these sacrifices earning the respect and praise of all the nations of the civilized world.

First we asked the question among ourselves; then we asked the government, and when we learned that the government could not at that time give us any specific work, we created war jobs for ourselves by building up organizations among women for future service and by training in war activities to meet the demand for woman service which was bound to come. In other words, the women of America began to prepare. And so when war was declared thousands were ready for service,—a very small percentage at that,—thousands more were creating their jobs, thousands were searching for the work they were to do, and still other thousands were asking the question, the old question, What can we do?

No better example of the willingness of the women volunteers is furnished than in the organization and growth of the National League for Woman's Service. When war was declared, the League had been organized two months. It was the first national war organization with a complete program and it attempted to solve the problem of the volunteer from every angle by classifying the neces-

sary work in as many divisions so that any useful service offered by a woman might be advantageously employed under a standardized plan.

Three days before President Wilson was re-elected, Miss Grace Parker, the national commandant of the League, sailed for England to make an intensive study of the war work of Englishwomen, and with Miss Parker's sailing the League properly had its beginning. She went to England because she saw the war cloud hovering nearer and nearer this country, and felt the need of some plan of preparation for war among the great mass of untrained women whose power, properly directed, is one of the great national assets in modern warfare.

When Miss Parker returned, the plan and program—the same program on which the League today is being conducted—was presented at a session of the Congress for Constructive Patriotism, held in Washington on January 26, 1917, under the auspices of the National Security League. At a later session of over five hundred women delegates representing practically every section of the country, this program was approved, and the first meeting of the appointed organization committee was held the next day when temporary officers were elected. The officers elected were (and they still remain the same): Miss Maude Wetmore, chairman; Mrs. Coffin Van Rensselaer, vice-chairman; Miss Anne Morgan, treasurer; and Miss Grace Parker, national commandant, with a board of fifteen directors. Temporary state chairmen were appointed by the board, state chairmen to be elected by the members of given states at a meeting to be called after complete organization had taken place.

On February 4, the day following the dismissal of the German ambassador, the officers of the League met in New York City to put into immediate operation that part of the program which would be of the greatest usefulness at that time. Accordingly, an emergency program was prepared and the divisions of activity were classified as follows: Social and welfare (including the canteen, which has since become a separate division), home economics, agriculture, industry, motor driving, general service, home and overseas relief.

An information blank to be filled in by organizations of women indicating their willingness to coöperate in the work outlined in this emergency program, and also a membership enrollment blank for

individuals desiring to enroll for specific service, were next prepared. And so on the day the United States declared war, the League had an enrollment of about 50,000 members, and an organization in thirty-one states. This had been accomplished in two months, not only by the sincere efforts of the officers of the League, but primarily because the women of the country were facing the crisis and demanding to be organized and prepared. The members are enrolled for a definite service and although they are not always classified as untrained workers, they render service in the particular branch of work they have designated. The League has now been organized in forty-one states in over seven hundred cities and has an enrollment of approximately 300,000 members.

During the eighteen months the United States has been at war the volunteers who make up the organization have accomplished many things. One of the first official acts was to have women included in the military census of New York State which at that time was impending. Through the efforts of the League, women, too, were included in the military census of Rhode Island, the only other state which has had a registration of its man power and woman power.

Following the organization of the League in Washington, several recommendations were made by the women to the federal government. One of these was that a Woman's Bureau be established under the government to deal with woman's work and woman's welfare. In making this recommendation, the League had in mind particularly the protection of the women who already were wage-earners and the thousands of others who in the months to come would take up the work of the men gone to war, in the offices, factories and stores. A great army of these women in England since the outbreak of the war has been the main sustenance of the men at the front.

The plan of the Woman's Bureau was approved by Secretary Wilson, and the Bureau of Registration and Information was established in Washington in March, 1917, under the supervision of the secretary, but financed and operated by the League pending the time when the Department of Labor could take this work into the department. The following October the bureau, together with its staff of workers and the organization which had been built up, was taken over by Secretary Wilson. But during the months that the

bureau was under the guidance of the League, it had accomplished certain work, with the assistance of Secretary Wilson, which never ceased to be of value to the Department of Labor. A particularly valuable service was the survey of the labor situation, as it concerned women especially in the states which were engaged conspicuously in the filling of government war contracts. The states surveyed included Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, South Carolina, Delaware, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, New York and parts of Pennsylvania and Massachusetts. The survey listed generally the exact status of the woman labor supply in the factories engaged on war orders, the nature of the work the women did, the supply of trained woman labor in nearby towns and villages, the housing facilities in the community and other matters all important to effective work.

The urgency of this survey is shown in one instance. In Pennsylvania, a manufacturer to whom a war contract had just been given advertised for several hundred women workers. In answer to his advertisement, he received no more than half a dozen replies. The Pennsylvania chairman of the League heard of his experience and called upon him immediately to offer him the assistance of the Bureau of Registration and Information. And in a few days, with the aid of the survey already made by the bureau of Pennsylvania, the workers were furnished. Only a small part of the work of the Bureau of Registration and Information was done by volunteers, although it was a part of the emergency program. The bureau itself was a digression on the part of the League from its work of training volunteers; but it was such an important part of the program of woman's war service that it was included in the organization plans.

Two months after war was declared, the first social service club for soldiers and sailors was opened by the League in New York. The club was established under the auspices of the Social and Welfare Division and today there are a thousand or more similar clubs under various organizations in the United States. The club in New York City at first occupied the first floor of the national headquarters of the League. It now takes a whole building, an old Madison Avenue residence. There are game rooms, writing rooms, a library and various other comforts in this club. Fourteen rooms, which in no way meet the need, are reserved for sleeping accommodations

for the men. The League club in San Francisco, from the latest reports, has the largest attendance. On one day this club was host to 3,000 men. Another club in Columbia, S. C., has a daily average attendance of over 1,000 men. In all its social and welfare work throughout the country the National League for Woman's Service has been working in close coöperation with the directors of the federal Commission on War Training Camp Activities.

One feature of the Sailors and Soldiers Clubs is the recreational canteen which is opened in them. In the canteens, substantial meals are served the men at prices very close to cost. The League is able to do this because all the workers from the cooks down to the dishwashers are volunteers. To women, the canteen has proved the most attractive of the volunteer work offered by the League. In New York City there are about 2,000 active workers in this branch of service. In addition to the League club the canteeners serve in all the war camp community clubs. Recently the Canteen Division in New York has been compelled to close its registration books to further applicants for service, when a checking up of workers showed a waiting list of 400 volunteers.

Every woman before she becomes eligible for service must take a course in cooking. The courses have been prepared by the League and cover practically all the small things she must know to give good service. The canteen undoubtedly sees more of the new spirit of willingness in women volunteers than any other division. In it there are women who, before the war, had never washed a dish or cooked a meal, and today they enjoy cooking hearty meals for hungry sailors and soldiers and then washing the dishes when the meal is finished.

One notable service of the canteen occurred last summer in Detroit. The ration allowance per man is seventy-five cents a day. It was not possible for the men to find a satisfactory restaurant or lunch-room where three meals could be had for such a sum. The officers of this special detachment, after some investigation, contracted with the National League for Woman's Service canteen to furnish meals for the men for three weeks for the regular allowance. When the contract expired, the canteen had paid all their expenses, fed the men satisfactorily and had cleared nearly \$1,000. As a result of this service, Detroit as a city has contracted with the

canteen to supply every enlisted man leaving the town with a lunch box at the cost of twenty-five cents. With the inauguration of the canteen, the League also organized the Emergency Canteen to meet the troop trains at the railroad stations after a long journey, and to feed the men on delayed trains where no provisions for feeding them had been made. The women who volunteered for this service pledged themselves to answer calls for service at any time of day or night. The Emergency Canteen built itself up to a membership of over 500 workers and recently has been taken over by the Red Cross, whose function it is to handle the railroad service.

In over 200 cities, the Home Economics Division of the League distributed thousands of the first and second Hoover pledge cards. This division, in practically every community where it is organized, made a house-to-house canvass to enlist the coöperation of the housewives with the Food Administration, to show them the methods of food conservation, and to see that households were put on a war-time food basis. All such work, we must remember, was and is being done by volunteers and the service they are giving to the government is the means of saving millions of dollars. Many classes in home economics have been formed by the League to train women to conserve food. An unusually successful, public-spirited part of the work of this division has been the establishing of community kitchens to help save food and fuel and to improve the general health of the centers in which they have been opened. At the community kitchens the cooking for the neighborhood in general is done. For a very small amount, a hot lunch or dinner can be bought at the kitchens and taken home. The Home Economics Division has opened kitchens in the neighborhoods where many women are compelled to leave their homes and work in factories or at other employment. Frequently these women are married and have not the time to give to the proper preparation of food for their families. The war, of course, necessarily has increased the number in this particular class of working women. In the majority of these kitchens the only paid worker is the cook; the dishwashers, waitresses and other helpers being volunteers.

Detachments under the Agricultural Division in every state in which the League is organized have promoted community gardens. Thousands of acres of land have been cultivated through the volunteers and they have made many unsightly vacant lots and useless

backyards into war gardens. The women of the Agricultural Division have been responsible, too, for special courses in war gardening being introduced in the colleges. Since the formation of the Woman's Land Army the League has directed practically all of its agricultural work through this organization.

Recently the surgeon-general of the United States Army officially recognized the Motor Corps of the National League for Woman's Service, which since the organization of the League has been driving for the War Department, the army and navy, and various departments of the federal and state government engaged in war work. In common with the women leaders in English war work, the organizers of the League have always believed that motor driving was an essential job in which the women could release the much-needed men. The Motor Corps, when the first annual report of the League was compiled, had branches in more than seventy cities in the country. The members must have passed an examination in motor mechanics, as well as first aid and signalling. They are required to take military and sanitary drill and are in uniform. In the corps, the drivers not only give their time but their own cars and upkeep. The foreign service flag of the corps has nine service stars on it.

Every kind of volunteer from a Yiddish interpreter to an accountant has been furnished on call by the General Service Division. In this division are registered stenographers who work eight hours a day at a paying job and then give a few hours of their evenings for war service; bookkeepers who do the same; others who have volunteered for Red Cross, war savings stamps and liberty loan drives; linguists; office girls; and a thousand and one other miscellaneous workers. Some of the workers in the General Service Division are trained; others are not; but there is urgent and important work in many of the federal and state departments which does require trained workers. One of our branches lately has been asked to supply a young worker who speaks several languages to translate foreign news for the Committee on Public Information. The worker has been supplied. Volunteers in this division have, at times, been assigned the most menial work; but with only a minority of exceptions they have stuck to these jobs until they are successfully completed.

The Home and Overseas Relief Division has sent thousands of

garments, comfort kits, surgical dressings, sweaters and other knitted articles abroad. The business women of the country have been organized on a large scale for relief work after business hours by this division. The slogan of each worker is "A Garment a Week for France." At Christmas time, these women sent many huge boxes packed with garments and presents to France. For these Christmas boxes many of the women broke away from the making of the regulation garments, especially on the children's clothes. They embroidered and crocheted lace for some of the small dresses and then tucked five cents away in some of the little apron pockets. Lately this division, with the aid of 38,000 florists everywhere in the United States, has begun the distribution of flowers to the hospitals where there are sick and wounded men. The women, too, are meeting the returning hospital ships with flowers. This is a sentimental piece of war work, some will say, but few who have not taken these flowers personally to the hospitals can realize the joy it brings to the men, this "Say it with flowers."

It is not possible in so short a space to give even a rough outline of the many ramifications of the war work of the National League for Woman's Service. It was formed for service, whatever and wherever that might be, and coöperates actively with the Woman's Committee, Council of National Defense, the Commission on Training Camp Activities, Red Cross, Y. M. C. A., and Y. W. C. A., as well as the various branches of the government with which it works directly.

The League is founded on the fundamental principle that training to do our job well is an essential for efficient service, that this is no time for the square peg in the round hole, that the greatest patriotic service a woman can render her country is to do that thing which she can do best, in the environment which is most natural to her. Every twenty-four hours of the day must be spent in war service. The spirit which is put into the daily task transforms the common round into patriotic service; in the home, the training ground for the future citizens, and in the schools; in the industries, the second line of defense, and above all in the daily intercourse with our neighbors where we must each so live our ideals of democracy, not merely state them, that the women of the country shall form that solid foundation of a national morale without which we cannot have the sure victory.

THE SUPERVISION OF SOLICITATION OF FUNDS FOR WAR RELIEF

By DOROTHY POPE,
Washington, D. C.

War relief meant to America, from 1914 to 1917, an outpouring of sympathy and generosity, expressed in financial support for the relief of the suffering civilians of the warring countries of Europe and Asia Minor. Now, in the midst of our participation in the war, the term has broadened to include provision for relief of our own civilian population affected by the war, and provision for the comfort and well-being of our soldiers here and abroad. Relief for Europe is now, as before, provided through our official war relief organization—the American Red Cross—and also through the numerous voluntary war relief organizations which have sprung into being to meet the war needs of Europe. The American Red Cross has also assumed the relief of the families of soldiers and sailors as an additional burden. To provide for our soldiers, the Commissions on Training Camp Activities of the War and Navy Departments, officially recognize six national voluntary organizations. The money needed for the support of the excellent work of these organizations, which are doing so much to maintain the morale of our army, is an entirely new responsibility willingly accepted since our entrance into the war.

The American people have risen to meet these new demands with generosity, but our continued participation in the war makes it apparent that the burden of relief and provision for our soldiers cannot be borne by any fraction of our populace. It must be borne by every individual citizen according to his means. In addition, we can support the financial strain of the war only if we practise economy far beyond our custom. As liberty loan follows liberty loan, economy in the expenditure of money becomes more and more necessary; as thousands after thousands of our young men train for the army and leave for France, economy in the use of men and human effort becomes imperative; and economy of time accompanies the economy of money and effort.

This economy is as necessary in the collection and disbursement of funds as in all other fields of war activity.

The two essentials, therefore, in providing for war relief are economy of time, effort and money, and sharing of the burden by every citizen of the United States. It is evident that to meet these demands of our crisis, we must discard the hit or miss method we have hitherto used to collect our funds and adopt centralized control on a nation-wide basis.

STATE COUNCILS OF DEFENSE

The state councils of defense are the only official war organizations operating in the states, which are charged with no single field of endeavor but with the mobilization of the time, efforts and money of the citizens of the states in active support of the war and the centralization and coördination of the war work in the states. Their membership represents the activities, resources and industries of the state, and they are both state and national in character. Though of such size that they can effectively determine the merit of the objects of the various war relief organizations and of the work which they are doing, they operate in a jurisdiction so small that they can effectively observe and supervise the methods of solicitation which these various agencies employ within their jurisdiction. Their extensive machinery, which extends through the county and school district, affords an admirable means of making supervision by them effective. They are thus the logical organization for the supervision of solicitation of funds for war relief purposes.

On December 7, 1917, the Council of National Defense, in a formal resolution, officially requested the state councils to assume the responsibility for exercising this supervision in their respective states, by adopting some system of supervision of such appeals, which "would encourage the patriotic and philanthropic spirit of the country to a generous response, by the assurance of the proper responsibility of those soliciting subscriptions, thus minimizing opportunities to exploit the benevolent impulses of the country," and as a means of so doing to investigate and approve of organizations which seem after investigation worthy of support. Model forms of the investigation of war relief organizations, compiled by the Council of National Defense from forms in use by private organizations, which investigate organizations collecting funds for

war relief, were transmitted to the state councils of defense with the suggestion that they make a state list of approved organizations.

The Council of National Defense further requested that all campaigns for private aid be conducted in entire coöperation with the state councils of defense. In pursuance of this request, voluntary relief organizations have been consistently requested to communicate with the state councils of defense before undertaking the collection of funds within the states.

STATE COUNCIL LISTS OF APPROVED AGENCIES

By June, 1918, forty-two state councils of defense had reported to the Council of National Defense that they had assumed responsibility for the supervision of the solicitation of funds. The action taken varies in the different states. In accordance with the suggestion of the Council of National Defense, nineteen state councils¹ had at that time prepared a list of approved agencies. This list is available only in the state council offices in some states, while in others it has been given wide publicity with a warning to people to give only to the organizations listed. Eight state councils² had issued permits to agents of approved organizations for presentation when soliciting funds. Four³ of these had been empowered by act of legislature to control the solicitation of funds by compelling the licensing of all organizations authorized to collect funds within the state. In other states similar legislation has been discussed but not passed as yet. Several state councils, in addition, have been expressly empowered by statute creating them to promulgate mandatory orders relating to their general purpose of providing for the security and welfare of the state during the war, and this power would seem capable of use to make compulsory the licensing of societies soliciting funds. The North Dakota Council of Defense is using such power for this purpose.

The final decision as to the societies to be endorsed rests entirely with the state councils of defense. The American Red Cross only

¹ Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Connecticut, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, Virginia and Washington.

² Illinois, Indiana, Montana, North Dakota, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota and Vermont.

³ Illinois, Montana, South Carolina and South Dakota.

has been endorsed by the Council of National Defense. Six organizations working directly under the Commission on Training Camp Activities—the Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., the Knights of Columbus, the Jewish Welfare Board, the American Library Association, and the War Camp Community Service—have been endorsed by that commission. In making up their list of approved organizations, some state councils of defense have considered not only the reliability of an organization, but also whether or not it duplicates existing work.

STATE AND LOCAL PLANS

In several of the forty-two states, where state councils have assumed responsibility for this work, they have considered methods of distribution as well as collection. Some have adopted on a state wide scale—others have allowed local communities to adopt—schemes providing for centralized collection and disbursement of funds.

The Illinois State Council, specially charged by state statute with the responsibility of licensing war relief organizations and supervising the collection of funds by such organizations through the state, early instructed each county council of defense in the state to organize a county finance committee which should undertake the financial campaigns for that county as they came along. The state council did not prescribe the exact form which the county finance committee should take, but issued a license to each county which adopted a plan satisfactory to the state council.

Among the most interesting and satisfactory plans which have thus developed in the state of Illinois are the plans of Vermillion and Mercer Counties, both of which provide permanent machinery to collect funds for the American Red Cross and the other agencies which conduct national campaigns. This machinery consists of a permanent committee in each township with subcommittees in each small district. These committees can be instantly mobilized for each drive as it is announced, to collect from each individual his share of the quota assigned. The county finance committee allots to each township its per cent of the county quota. A permanent card record of each contributor and the amount he or she subscribes for each call is kept on file.

In Mercer County each person is given by the town committee a

permanent rating as a gage of what he ought to give and will be asked to give in each drive. The county quota is subdivided on a basis of 120 per cent, the extra 20 per cent allowing for deflection by an individual from his assigned quota, and the surplus going toward county council of defense expenses or toward the quota for the next drive. In both counties only the exact quota for each drive is paid to the organization for whose benefit the drive is conducted. Neither of these plans provides for the centralized control of the smaller relief organizations.

A plan has developed among the local councils of many states which provides for far more sweeping control of both the collection and disbursement of funds than do the plans of the Illinois counties. This is the war chest. Under the war chest, a community committee undertakes the collection and disbursement of funds for all war relief, including the recognized national organizations and it disburses funds according to the assigned national quotas, or, in the absence of a national quota, in as just a manner as possible. Although the form of war chest varies considerably in different communities, its essentials are the same in all.

A war chest committee of leading citizens of a county or town is appointed, usually under the local council of defense, to take charge of the systematic collection and distribution of funds for war relief, to all organizations to which the committee decides to give. The force of popular opinion is employed to prevent direct solicitation of funds for war relief in the county or town, but the individual is allowed to prescribe the causes which his money is to support. One object of the chest is to collect money from as nearly as possible every individual of the community. The money is either collected in one drive at a specific time or is collected in weekly or monthly pledges made by members of the community. Where a pledge system is used, the amount of the pledge is sometimes stated as a percentage basis of the wages of the person pledging.

As in the adoption of any new plan, there have been ardent supporters and bitter opponents of the war chest idea. A recent list of the towns collecting funds on the war chest plan, shows that the plan has gotten a foothold in one or more municipalities or localities in thirty-six states. Five⁴ state councils of defense have definitely endorsed the war chest plan and have recommended its

⁴ Michigan, New Mexico, New York, Washington and Wisconsin.

adoption in the counties in their states. Four³ state councils are at present considering its advisability. On the other hand, four⁴ state councils have disapproved this plan for collecting funds. The Commercial Relations Committee of the Connecticut State Council, which has recently made a thorough study of the war chest, in a preliminary report states that among the cities visited, or corresponded with, they found that none of those which had adopted the war chest plan desired to give it up. The degree of success, however, of the war chest seems largely dependent upon the care and preparation that has been given to the working out of the plan.

The Council of National Defense has not taken any action upon the development of the war chest plan in the several states. It confines its request to the establishment of some system of adequate centralized supervision under each state council of defense; it suggests as a means to this end the careful preparation and wide publication of a list of approved societies, and leaves the further details to be worked out by the state councils themselves.

State councils of defense, following out the request of the Council of National Defense, are endeavoring to bring about in their several states a supervision of funds for war relief which will aid the nation by providing for the economy and conservation of its resources at this time when economy is so vital, and will insure adequate support to organizations doing efficient and essential work. Their supervision aims also to protect their citizens from fraud and from constant, petty and irritating solicitation and to insure thereby their continued generosity, upon which adequate support of war relief depends. With the progress of the war, the need for effective supervision of solicitation for war relief, just as the need of relief itself, becomes increasingly vital. This supervision depends for its success upon the coöperation of the individual citizen and of the war relief agencies concerned with the state councils of defense.

³ Connecticut, Oregon, Pennsylvania and Utah.

⁴ Illinois, Massachusetts, Tennessee and Virginia.

THE WAR CHEST PLAN

BY HORATIO G. LLOYD,

Chairman, Executive Committee of War Welfare Council of Philadelphia and Vicinity.

The war chest is simply one phase of a movement which is becoming more and more general; namely, the application of the principle of conservation of both energy and money, to all work that has to do with the prosecution of the war. It has as its central idea the bringing of all the money raised by the common effort of all the people in a community into a common fund, from which war relief needs shall be met. It is designed to work out such a thoroughly systematic canvass that the raising of funds will become both simpler and more accurately proportional to the demands that are made upon the community.

What is more natural, when everyone from the President down is talking co-operation and conservation, than the application of this principle to the various war relief organizations, whose needs must be met by the voluntary gifts of the American people? When the separate drives or campaigns that characterized the first months of the war were instituted, we had no conception of what was before us. We knew in a general way that funds would be required for war needs which would not and should not be furnished by the national government, but few of us had the vision to realize the magnitude of that side of war. We were without experience. We did not know what a vast undertaking it would be to keep the organizations supplied with funds to perform the work that they would be called upon to do. Indeed, it is doubtful, if many people had any idea that the organizations which would be taken over, or called into being, would be so numerous and varied. The first information many of us had of the existence of certain organizations was when it was announced that a drive would be made for this or that cause. Sometimes the first knowledge we had was when the solicitor appeared.

Now, however, all this is changed. We know what the organizations are, or can find out what they are. Also we can form some idea as to what the money requirements of each will be, for a given period of time. This cannot be determined exactly, of course, as no one can foresee how much work any organization, especially those

that are national in scope and character, will be called upon to do. We do know that their work is constantly increasing and that their money requirements will increase proportionately,—in fact, we know that all the money that can be raised can be used to advantage, and that our soldiers and sailors will be the beneficiaries.

Every community in the country is confronted with the same problem. How can this great obligation be dealt with most effectively? How can this voluntary tax, for that is what it is, be best met? To those who have tried it, the solution lies in the Community War Chest. In the first place, it saves a great deal of time and avoids great duplication of effort. It avoids the general disruption of business, produces more money and does not involve as much waste of energy. Also, it assures a very much broader and more comprehensive basis of giving than was possible under the system of separate drives. Being a community movement, it unquestionably stimulates community pride, and from that point of view alone is very valuable. What is perhaps still more important is its unifying effect upon citizenship and the increased community solidarity.

The foregoing deals with the question from the standpoint of those who are called upon to manage the campaigns, those who participate as contributors, and generally from the standpoint of the community. Now take the side of the organizations that are to become participants in the fund, that is beneficiaries. There can be no question as to the desirability of the war chest, so far as the relatively small movements are concerned. The smaller organizations have not the same advertising or selling value that their more spectacular big brothers have. However worthy they may be of adequate financial support, there is always a danger under the separate drive system that they will get too little, or it is even possible that they may get too much, rather than a proportional amount. The war chest plan makes it possible for small movements to get adequate, but proportional financial support. From the standpoint of the large organizations, nothing is to be feared under the war chest movement so long as it is properly organized and wisely administered. In some cities the policy has been somewhat narrow: in some, money has been unwisely expended or disbursed, but these mistakes and this narrowness have nothing to do with the war chest principle.

It is, perhaps, worth while to emphasize that the war chest plan makes possible the democratization of giving. It has never been asserted by the most eager opponent of the war chest that fewer people give under this plan, and statistics show conclusively that a tremendously larger percentage do contribute under this plan. That has a distinct value in itself, because it makes the largest possible number of people definitely linked up to the war in a benevolent and philanthropic sense. The industrial workman is given his opportunity to participate as never before.

It has been asserted, that separate drives by the different organizations have a great educational value. It is possible that this was true in the first months of the war, when most of us were apathetic and lacking in appreciation of the seriousness of the whole situation, and had not come to know and appreciate the worth and importance of the American Red Cross, Young Men's Christian Association, Knights of Columbus, Jewish Welfare Board and all the other agencies of war relief. On the other hand, many intelligent observers contend that the value of the separate drive in this respect was overestimated, even in the early days of the war, taking the position that it is extremely doubtful whether from a pedagogical point of view a financial drive is the best means of education, or whether a well devised system of propaganda is not better suited to achieve results. However that may be, it is fair to assume that the real gauge as to the extent and success of the education, in a broad sense, brought about by drives is to be found in the number of givers, and on that basis it is undoubtedly a fact that the war chest is a better educational agency.

President Wilson has said: "The supreme test of the Nation has come. We must all speak, act and serve together." It is not likely the President had the community war chest in mind when he uttered these words shortly after we entered the war, but it is obvious that he did have in mind the principle on which the war chest is founded.

Unity and organization constitute the working strength of a great cause, and the more important the cause the greater the necessity for getting together. The war must be prosecuted, not only by the fighting forces, but by the united, steady and adequate support of all the people behind them.

No war chest campaign can be said to be successful if it does not bring to its support all elements in the community. It has al-

most invariably been found that all of the separate elements which previously existed have been welded together and made one, all working for the common cause. All former lines of cleavage and barriers have been broken down. All work for all. Protestant and Catholic, Jew and Gentile, black and white, all work together for the common good, without regard to whether the funds they give or solicit from others are to go to the particular cause in which they are interested.

It is well known that under the old method, a very large part of all money raised was given by practically the same people. The reason for it is not far to seek. The campaign committees in each case, anxious to raise the necessary fund with the least expenditure of time and money, naturally followed the line of least resistance, and sought those who were known to be generous, and had been liberal givers to charities in peace times. It is not that others were not quite as willing to give. The direct appeal was never made to them. All they knew was what they saw in the newspapers or on billboards. The committees in charge, hastily brought together as they were, on short notice, were not able to create an organization which could present properly to all the people the cause for which they were enlisted.

One outstanding case is that of a community of nearly 2,500,000 people. In the Red Cross and Young Men's Christian Association campaigns in 1917, there were not more than 30,000 subscribers, while in a recent war chest campaign there were approximately 500,000 subscribers. It is not that this large number were unwilling to subscribe,—they were more than willing to do so, as was evidenced by the war chest campaign—no coercion or even persuasion in most cases was necessary. It was necessary only to tell them about it. They gave voluntarily and cheerfully. For the most part they asked no questions about who should be the beneficiaries. They merely wanted to be assured that their money would go to help our fighting men, or to relieve suffering caused by the war, and the character of the men who had been selected to administer and disburse the fund was such that they were satisfied that it would go where it was most needed and would do the most good.

Anyone who has had to do with the creation of organizations to conduct campaigns since the beginning of the war, will agree that it was much simpler in the first months of the war than it was in the

spring of 1918. In the early days, practically all men and women whose hearts were in the right place and whose minds were as they should be, were available for any war service. Now, however, all this has changed. Look over the list of those in any given community who worked in the Red Cross campaign in June, 1917, and see how many of them are now in France, or in the service of the government at Washington, or regularly and permanently engaged in war relief work at home, or in building ships, or some other necessary work for the government and from which they cannot be released for even the short period of time necessary to work in a campaign. The burden of nearly all campaigns, not only for the various relief organizations, but for liberty loans as well, falls on practically the same men, and it is becoming increasingly difficult to get a sufficient number of competent men for the work, as more and more men, and always the most competent, are being drawn into some branch of government work.

Is not this, in itself, sufficient reason for reducing the number of campaigns to a minimum? Is it right to take all these men and women from useful occupation several times a year, at a time when, more than ever before, man power should be conserved, not wasted? Most men have their hands full these days, more than full. A system which uses their time and energy needlessly is a bad system. Every business man taken from his desk, every foreman taken from the factory, every workman taken from his own particular task, whatever it may be, either to act as solicitor or to be solicited, represents just so much lost motion which, in the aggregate, is enormous. To repeat that interruption several times a year is to multiply waste, to squander business energy. A war chest, after it is put in operation, calls for no needless reduplication, no wasted energy. It represents a saving of business, time, and energy that is incalculable.

Consider also the economy of money. If the plan should become general, it would eliminate the enormous amount of printing, the buttons, booths and other paraphernalia. Think, too, of the express, telephone and telegraph bills involved in repeated "drives." With the most economical management, with the most careful methods, the tremendous task of covering the country with a temporary organization, and fitting it out with material of all sorts and keeping in touch with all parts of it must necessarily mean an expense which, in the aggregate, amounts to a huge sum. If, after one

culminating effort all that unnecessary expense could be eliminated, the saving would be great indeed; the ratio of net return to gross receipts would rise very perceptibly. A conservative estimate of the gifts to war relief in 1917 would not be less than \$300,000,000. A saving of one per cent would be \$3,000,000.

Another marked advantage of the war chest plan is that it ensures a proper proportion of the community gift to each fund. Hitherto, the deserts of an activity have been only one of many factors which determined the amount it would receive. The enthusiasm, energy and capacity of the campaign manager, the weather, the more convenient season, these and a host of other irrelevant factors helped to determine the amount. These are not adequate criteria of the value of a cause, or of the support it should receive. The new plan determines the size of the gift, not on the basis of chance, but after proper investigation by a representative body who can take the proper factors into account. To leave any longer so vital a matter as this so largely to chance is indefensible.

Further, it makes possible adequate contributions by persons of small means. Under the present lack of system, great numbers of persons who can give something and are ready to give something are not effectively reached. Solicitors who have covered working class areas in previous drives, know that large lump sums are impossible from these folk: the day before pay-day, very little money is forthcoming; and with so many drives, deferred payments on small amounts are too expensive in collection to be worth while. The proposed scheme, on the contrary, by making possible regular and continuous giving, will make it possible for the wage-earner to give substantial sums. He may authorize his employer to withhold his contribution from his pay envelope. The money thus obtained can be paid in a lump sum to the fund. Thus the worker can give adequately, yet without hardship; he is linked up with the community of givers. He can feel that he is participating in a wide range of enterprises, whereas at present he can respond to only one or two of the more urgent appeals.

The adoption of the war chest plan would allow the individual to look ahead and through foresight make provision for his obligation. It would encourage people to adopt some reasonable, though sacrificial, measure of giving. Surely there is nothing unpatriotic in making giving more intelligent. The number of Americans who

do not need to plan ahead is small. It is true that, in the beginning, separate drives raised more money. A man had a glimpse of the wonderful work of the Red Cross. He enthused; he had no idea of what was coming; he plunged. By and by the Young Men's Christian Association came around; he enthused; he plunged; but more cautiously. Gradually the idea dawned on him that it was to be a sort of continuous performance. There developed—anyone who has done soliciting will admit it if he is candid—a tendency to hold back for the next drive, a tendency which must in the nature of the case become more and more accentuated as time goes on. Another cause for holding back has also appeared. Many people are hesitant about subscribing to new funds, until deferred payments on previous subscriptions have been met. This constitutes a very real conflict between the several drives, which does not lie on the surface and does not, in consequence, appear to the casual observer. The old plan will no longer produce more money than the new: the situation is reversed. The war chest plan produces more revenue.

Another advantage lies in the fact that the proposed scheme opens the way to some extent to answer the question which every sincere person has asked, "How much should I give?" No answer is possible under the old plan. Under the war chest plan, however, experience has shown that it can be made with considerable accuracy. In fact, it is essential to the success of the plan that an answer must be made to that question. Unless a scale of giving is prepared, based on the incomes of the prospective givers, the amount that could be raised in a campaign would be left entirely to chance. In the most successful campaigns, a very important part of the preliminary work has been the preparation of statistics to determine the percentage of the population that can be counted upon to become subscribers and the average subscription from each. Of course it is only an estimate, but experience has shown that if the work is done intelligently a very close estimate can be made.

It has become quite common for committees to prepare a scale of giving, and prospects generally take it as it is intended to be taken, viz., merely as a suggestion to help them make up their minds what is their part of the total amount to be raised. In the preparation of an estimate of the amount that can be secured in any community, allowance must unfortunately be made for those rich men with shrunken souls, with which almost every community is cursed.

Too much stress cannot be laid on the importance of organization: unless this is thoroughly done, it would be useless to attempt to carry out a war chest campaign with any hope of success. Furthermore, such an organization when created would be available for any contingency that might arise, and for this reason it would be a real asset in any community. It would be especially valuable in connection with the liberty loan campaigns, which, from all appearance, will be a feature of our lives for some time to come.

Such, in very briefest outline, are some of the considerations which indicate the desirability of organizing war chests in each community. It is no longer in the experimental stage. It has been tried out. The foundations are laid, the technique is developed, and the experience of those pioneers is now at the service of others. The practice and theory alike are satisfactory. The war chest is broad in its appeal, productive of revenue, at little expense, stimulating both to local pride and to national feeling, and it substitutes coöperation for competition among causes that should never be thrown into conflict with each other.

and nationalization of railroads. It is argued by anti-nationalists that the principle of absolute independence which has been held by the railroads and their management since 1850 is right. Land's study has led him to conclude that such a policy is unwise.

BOOK DEPARTMENT

BIGGAR, E. B. *The Canadian Railway Problem.* Pp. vii, 258. Price, \$1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1917.

Pointing out in a clear and concise manner the shortcomings and misdeeds of the private corporations which have controlled railway transportation in Canada and showing how through mismanagement and corruption the corporations have taken millions of dollars from the public and have given inadequate and inefficient service, Mr. Biggar argues for the complete nationalization of all railroads. While one may be inclined to differ with his belief in the advisability and the "inevitableness" of government ownership, one should welcome the clear exposition of the evils of the present system—evils which must certainly be eradicated if government ownership is to be avoided.

T. W. V. M.

University of Columbia.

DUNN, SAMUEL O. *Regulation of Railways.* Pp. x, 354. Price, \$1.75. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1918.

Shortly before the United States government took over the control of the operation of the railroads, Mr. Dunn had brought together for publication in book form several papers which he had previously published dealing with the general subject of federal regulation of railroads. These papers had been largely revised and had been supplemented to an appreciable extent. Fortunately, the volume did not go to press until after the government had taken control of railroad operations, and Mr. Dunn was able to revise and enlarge his book by discussing the problems of regulation to which federal control had given rise.

Students of railroad transportation are familiar with Mr. Dunn's views. He has written extensively and frequently for many years, always thoughtfully and with a firm grasp of the facts discussed. As editor of the "Railway Age," Mr. Dunn would naturally tend to be critical of federal regulation, but his criticisms concern means and methods rather than the general principle of regulation. Mr. Dunn believes, and it is probable that a great majority of the people of the United States believe, that the country should return after the war to the federal regulation of privately owned railroads instead of adopting the policy of government ownership and operation.

Mr. Dunn looks forward to a very thorough and comprehensive government regulation of railroads, and in the concluding chapter of his book he outlines a plan of regulation. He favors the incorporation of a railroad-holding company in each of the large sections of the country. The stocks of these holding companies should be supervised by the Interstate Commerce Commission, and a dividend of 5 per cent should be guaranteed by the government. These companies should have a board of twelve directors, one-third of these to be appointed by the President of the United States. There should also be an equipment company for the

acquisition and distribution of box cars. Regulation by the Interstate Commerce Commission should be continued. The several state commissions should be retired from the regulation of railroads, and there should either be regional commissions established or provision should be made for an advisory council similar to those now found in Germany, Austria-Hungary and France.

Mr. Dunn believes that this plan "would remove the main obstacles to fair and helpful regulation of rates" . . . "would eliminate the wastes now caused by undesirable competition" . . . "would remove the financial control of the railroads from Wall Street," and would decentralize railroad control, solve the problem of railroad credit and render it possible for the railway companies to secure and "raise the capital required for adequate development of railway facilities."

E. R. J.

University of Pennsylvania.

LAPP, JOHN A. *Federal Rules and Regulations.* Pp. xi, 628. Price, \$7.50. Indianapolis: B. F. Bowen and Company, 1918.

The journalist, the teacher of government, the attorney and the business man will find this compilation of great practical value. It is an admirable companion piece to Dr. Lapp's "Important Federal Laws" and is handled with the same good judgment in selection, summarizing and presentation as was its predecessor.

In the present volume, Dr. Lapp gives us that administrative interpretation or enforcement which is the real meat of federal law. We may read an act such as that regulating the food and drug trade, or the immigration act, but we can have no grasp of its real significance until we examine the administrative rules which enforce it. Dr. Lapp's compilation thus presents a picture which may be styled "the reality of national legislation." Here we find regulations issued by such authorities and covering such financial subjects as the Federal Reserve Board, postal savings, bankruptcy, farm loan banks; such agricultural subjects as grain standards, the import and interstate movement of livestock, plant quarantines, including grains, timber, sugar cane, vegetables, fruits, food and drugs, meat inspection, federal aid for roads; such legal and commercial topics as the rules of practice before federal trade commission, federal courts, federal land offices, the U. S. Board of General Appraisers, registration of trade marks, copyrights, prints and labels, rules of immigration and naturalization, together with many other subjects which closely affect our business and social relations. The arrangement is made in convenient groups and with each group is given a reference to the laws under which the regulations were issued.

JAMES T. YOUNG.

University of Pennsylvania.

RUGG, HAROLD O. *Statistical Methods Applied to Education.* Pp. xviii, 410. Price, \$2.00. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1917.

The number of text-books on statistical methods which have appeared in recent years, indicates a healthy development in the social sciences—a fruitful recognition of the firm basis on which the progress of these sciences rests. The difficulty in teaching modern methods of statistical analysis has been the

mathematical character of the work of the founders of this science; Pearson, Yule, Elderton and others. Professor Rugg's book is just what it professes to be, a presentation in non-mathematical language of these new tools for measuring type, variation and relationship in mass phenomena, and he has done a very creditable piece of work. The thorough student of statistics will still have need for the writings of Yule and Pearson, but this book will make the new science intelligible and usable by many students who would find these original writings hopelessly technical. The book is written for students in education and its illustrations are drawn from that field, but this fact makes it no less valuable to the student of economics. It is hoped that it may foster a more general study of statistics than exists now in schools of economics.

BRUCE D. MUDGETT.

University of Washington.

TRACHTENBERG, ALEXANDER (Ed. by). *The American Labor Year Book, 1917-18.* Pp. 384. Price, 60 cents. New York: Rand School of Social Science, 1918.

The data compiled for this annual volume, although presented from the socialist viewpoint, will be found useful by other students as a presentation of labor questions from that angle.

J. T. Y.

University of Pennsylvania.

WOLFE, O. HOWARD. *Practical Banking.* Pp. xi, 290. Price, \$2.00. Chicago: La Salle Extension University, 1917.

The volume under consideration gives a clear and concise account of the organization and administration of commercial banks, and contains, besides, chapters on clearing houses, foreign exchange, trust companies and savings banks. It is well suited to satisfy the wants of correspondence students of the subject who are actually or prospectively engaged in any department of the work of a commercial bank. The book differs from the typical work on the subject, chiefly in a satisfying avoidance of the superfluous and remotely relevant and in the omission of all but scant reference to the legal aspects of banking and banking instruments. The author, moreover, does not fail to stress recent developments and practices, whether in connection with the detailed work of a department or with such matters as audits and examinations, advertising and new business. The volume is illuminated by almost a hundred forms reproduced in their proper connections. Questions given at the end of each chapter afford the student or reader means of adequately testing his knowledge of the chapter contents.

The book is all but free from inaccuracies and mechanical shortcomings. Perhaps the only error of consequence is a readily recognized mis-statement of reserve requirements applying to country and reserve city banks prior to the establishment of the Federal Reserve System (page 82).

The author has utilized his rich and varied banking and educational experience in producing a volume that is at once clear, compact and well adapted to the needs of those for whom it is specially designed.

CHESTER A. PHILLIPS.

Dartmouth College.

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